The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 28, 1898.

The Week.

It must be said that the course of the war has been lucky for us. We do not mean that luck accounts for the magnificent work of the navy or the stanch bravery of the army, but that we have had the good fortune to appear to be doing with great success just what we set out to do, when, as a matter of fact, we have not been doing that. The capture of Havana was our announced great objective at the opening of the war, yet we have not sent a soldier or fired a gun against that city. This would have sadly lowered our military prestige, had not good luck thrown in our way the opportunity to strike such telling blows elsewhere. And now that their effect is passing, we set out briskly for Porto Rico, on what will undoubtedly be another successful expedition, and are in a fair way to heighten our reputation for vigor and efficiency, while we are saying nothing whatever about our original intention to take Havana out of hand. No concealment is now made at Washington of the fact that a campaign against the Cuban capital, if one has to be undertaken, will not be attempted before autumn. The army is not ready; and if it were, it would be madness to send it against Havana in midsummer. That is one lesson of the Santiago campaign which is writ too plain to be disregarded. But imagine the mortification it would have cost us if we had had to go on drilling and waiting, with Blanco challenging us to come on. Dewey, and Cervera's flight to destruction, and the splendid results at Santiago have saved us from that, and now we are off to Porto Rico, and Watson is perhaps about to sail for Spain, and we shall get more "glory" and possibly peace without having to capture Havana at all.

One advantage of the military government set up in Santiago is that it gives the authorities a free hand in dealing with the tariff. The rates proclaimed and now in force are substantially the old Spanish minimum tariff. This would have been, of course, illegal if the territory had been formally annexed and put under civil government. As it is, military administration of a conquered province avoids conflict with the constitutional provision that all imposts throughout the United States shall be uniform. That the change is an excellent one for the residents of Santiago is already evident. The price of flour has fallen to little more than one-half what it was under Spanish rule before the war. The former Cuban tariff on flour was, in fact, one of the most flagrant examples of Spain's deliberate misgovernment of the island. In order to play into the hands of a Spanish monopoly, the rates on flour coming from other countries were made about five times what had to be paid on flour imported from Spain. As a matter of fact, flour has long been imported into Spain from this country, and then reshipped to Cuba and sold at a profit, the duties being ingeniously arranged to make this possible. Of course, the Cuban had to pay two prices for his bread, but what did that matter as long as the great principle was maintained that the colonies exist only for Spain to bleed? It was an instance of the blind and hideous misgovernment which lost Cuba to Spain; and the prompt undoing of this fiscal outrage is really one of the greatest blessings which Cubans have reaped from the presence of our army in the island.

Now those in the confidence of the President are telling us that this military government of Santiago is the norm of the government which is to be extended over the whole island, as we occupy it, as well as over Porto Rico and the Philippines, as long as we hold the latter. Mr. McKinley still talks of turning over Cuba to the Cubans, but admits that many years must elapse before it can be done with safety. Meanwhile, the military government will be continued. But is it generally perceived what this means on the tariff side? It means the giving up of the principle of discrimination in favor of American goods in vast territories under the American flag. It is the policy of the "open door." The door is open now at Santiago, and it will be open in Porto Rico and at Manila. Yet this momentous change passes almost unperceived. Suppose President Cleveland had suggested ten years ago taking Cuba by American arms and devising a system by which the goods of all nations could freely compete with our own in Cuban markets—what howls would have arisen! Mr. McKinley would have been chief howler. But now, as we say, all this goes as a matter of course. The real reason for this gentle acquiescence is, of course, that our manufacturers and exporters know they can control the Cuban market without any discrimination in their favor. Take away the other fellow's discrimination, and they ask no more. No doubt this is the case. No doubt the same thing is the case in the American market. It is not yet frankly confessed there, though it may be in time. At any rate, the confession has been made in respect to Cuba, and that alone is enough to leave the American protective system standing before the world an empty shell.

The call issued by the Civic Federation of Chicago for a national conference to discuss our foreign policy will evidently meet with attention. The danger will rather be that the response may be too overwhelming, and the directors of the conference will need to exercise great judgment in securing the expression of the best opinion, or they will be drowned in a flood of oratory. The difficulty is that the subject is extremely vague and undefined, and unless it is subjected to analysis and the manifold questions involved clearly distinguished, very few people will talk to the point. In Congress the advocates of an imperial policy absolutely declined to answer inquiries as to what it involved. They said that such questions related to matters of detail, and that such bridges could be crossed when we came to them. Some of them said that the Almighty was clearly leading this country, and that we had nothing to do but to accept His guidance. Others said that the American people always decided right, and would decide questions of colonial policy right as soon as they arose. All of them agreed that the American people could do anything it set out to do, and that it was unpatriotic to intimate a doubt concerning its goodness, its wisdom, or its abilities.

The less that is heard of talk of this kind at the conference, the better. We have had a great abundance of it without much enlightenment, and it is now time for clear-cut and positive propositions. Let the conference ask if the Declaration of Independence was a true statement of human rights or a tissue of falsehoods. Let it inquire whether it is a lie that men are created equal, and decide whether only such people have a right to govern themselves as the American people regard as sufficiently intelligent and virtuous to do so. Let those who favor an imperial policy be compelled to say whether our new subjects shall be compelled to work by penal statutes, as they now are in Hawaii, or whether they shall be as free as American workmen. Let them say whether protection or free trade shall prevail in our new possessions, and whether the Catholic orders shall be deprived of the temporal rights which they now enjoy. Let them tell us how much the expenditure of the general Government is to be increased, and what additional taxes are to be levied in order to provide this revenue. If the conference will take up specific questions like these, its results may be of the greatest value to the country, and we sincerely hope that it

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

may be so conducted as to compel its speakers to face the actual problems of legislation that confront Congress.

The London *Economist*, without professing particular concern for our future, or assuming to advise us, points out what we involve ourselves in if we undertake to acquire remote territories. Commenting on the annexation of Hawaii, it remarks that it is, for good or for evil, a revolution in American history. The annexation of alien peoples over-sea and unfit for self-government is not in harmony with the spirit or letter of our institutions. That is a plain matter of fact. "Either unfit and semi-savage people must be endowed with the same rights as those held by American citizens, or they must be helots; they must be a *ruda indigestaque moles*, governed against their will by officials whom they will probably hate, and so forming a new class outside the true life of the republic." Add to this that if the United States interferes in European and Asiatic affairs, "Europe must and will interfere in American affairs, North and South." But no nation can sit down at table with the great Powers of Europe without being heavily armed. After the civil war was over, our immense armies were disbanded at once; but if we seize possessions over-sea we cannot disarm. "At any moment a dangerous revolt might arise in regions far away, or an indiscreet official might involve the American Government with the Powers of Europe." Hence we must increase taxation to maintain these forces, and the powers of the central Government must be enlarged. Against all this is to be offset a possible increase of trade with China. It is for the American people to decide if the possible gain is worth a revolution in their system of government.

Decidedly the most curious development of the war is the contract of our Government with a Spanish steamship company to transport the Santiago prisoners of war to Spain, and yet it seems to be in every way an advantageous arrangement. In the first place, it makes for peace in the mere fact that it is an amicable business transaction between two hostile Powers. In the second place, it rids the American Government of all responsibility as to the treatment of the prisoners during the voyage. Surely Spaniards cannot complain to us if their own countrymen do not treat them well after signing a formal contract to do so on their own terms, and in consideration of money paid to them by us. In the third place, we get the job done at about half the price which other companies were willing to do it for, which will save the Government a good many thousands of dollars. In the fourth place, we shall need to send with the transporting steamers no protecting convoy. All we need get assurance of is that they reach their destination, and that will be an easy thing to accomplish. If any accident happens to them on the way, the responsibility will be entirely Spanish.

The statement addressed by Mr. H. H. Hanna to the business men of the United States who have participated in the Indianapolis movement for currency reform, is a very important one at this juncture, coming at the time when the new war bonds are issuing from the Treasury. The success of this loan has been phenomenal, the whole amount ($200,000,000) having been taken in lots of $4,500 or less to each subscriber. The bonds are now at a premium of 4 per cent. and are eagerly bid for by banks desiring to invest their surplus funds or to take out circulation under the national banking act. The premium offered will undoubtedly draw a large part of them out of the hands of the subscribers and lead to an increase of the national bank currency. Mr. Hanna does not allude to the question of the monetary standard. The phrase 16 to 1 has an ancient and fish-like smell, and Mr. Hanna is wise in confining himself to later phases of the money controversy. The subject to which he addresses himself is the bill reported by the House committee on banking and currency shortly before the adjournment of the recent session, and his object is to call the attention of business men to the remarkable progress made during the past two years in uniting public opinion on a specific measure of currency reform. In that period, the need of such a measure having become apparent, the first Indianapolis convention undertook to supply it. The Monetary Commission, of which ex-Senator Edmunds was the chairman, followed. In due time, and after months of painstaking and most intelligent effort, a plan was reported with a bill for carrying it into effect. It was offered to the committee on banking and currency and was adopted in part. Other features were added, and when the bill came from the committee and was found to be unobjectionable, although different in some respects from that reported by the Indianapolis commission, Mr. Hanna and his associates put all their energies and all the machinery they had organized at work to secure support for it in Congress and in the country.

What was accomplished in this way Mr. Hanna tells us in the following paragraph:

"To measure the present condition it is only necessary to say that there is every reason to believe that the President and all the leading Administration Republican Senators and Congressmen, and the 150 members of the House who signed the petition, now stand united in support of the general principles of the committee's bill. There is every reason to believe that Mr. Reed will be an earnest advocate of monetary legislation."

If there ever was an organization for moving public opinion that could give a better account of itself at the end of eighteen months than the Indianapolis monetary convention can, we do not know where or when it is to be found. Mr. Hanna may well congratulate himself and his associates on the results of their labor so far as they have gone. That they will do with equal zeal and intelligence what still remains to be done, we have full confidence. We remark, in connection with Mr. Hanna's statement, that the final report of the Monetary Commission—a volume of over 600 pages, prepared by Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin—has just been issued from the University of Chicago press. It is an invaluable work for all students of the subject, and cannot fail to be one of the important sources of our financial and political history.

Mr. A. B. Hepburn's address before the State Bankers' Association draws attention to one of the crying and apparently incorrigible evils of our time—the pardoning of bank defaulters and bank robbers by Governors of States and by the President of the United States. Mr. Hepburn has been at pains to collect statistics upon this subject, not complete for the whole country, but sufficiently so to show what a deplorable condition of things exists by reason of the facility with which these criminals escape punishment after conviction. He first obtained the whole number of convictions in a particular State since 1893, and the terms of imprisonment to which the culprits were sentenced, then the diminution of the sentences by pardon; and from these data arrived at the average term of confinement. In Vermont, the State which deals most rigorously with criminals, the average sentence was for 8 years 2 months and 12 days; the average time served was 5 years and 4 months. In New York the average sentence was 7 years 4 months and 5 days; the average service 3 years and 3 months. A part of this shortening of sentence was due to the "good-behavior clause" of the State law. The worst showing of all is made by the pardoning power of the President of the United States. The average sentence in the courts of the United States during the period was 5 years and 11 months; the actual service was only 3 years and 6 days. Almost exactly one-half of the penalty imposed by the judicial department for bank robbery and defalcation was remitted by the executive department. The chief part of this clemency is exercised in behalf of rogues who have social influence and "pulls." They are men who have held positions of trust in banks and have operated from the inside. They have betrayed the trust reposed in them, and hence have sinned

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

against greater light than the burglars who, with jimmy and dynamite, have cracked safes from the outside. Their sentences ought to have been longer for that reason. Of the various classes of offenders, they are much the worst and the least entitled to sympathy. Mr. Hepburn has rendered the community a service by calling attention to these discreditable facts.

The great strike which has taken place at the Hoe printing-press works in this city is clearly an attempt to establish the principle of equal pay for unequal men. The Socialists of the Fabian school, who have of late succeeded in persuading some of the English trade-unions to adopt their theories, insist on this principle as essential. They regard laborers as constituting a caste, or a series of castes, between the members of which no distinction must be allowed to exist. To admit that one man shall be allowed to earn more than another by working harder or longer or more cleverly, upsets their schemes. They demand a fixed rate of wages for a fixed quantity of work, disapproving of overtime and the piece-work system, and it is to enforce these demands, as well as to control the taking of apprentices, that the present strike is begun. Mr. Hoe proposes to resist these demands, on the ground that the piece-work system is profitable not only to his firm but to the workmen. Every workman receives a stated sum per diem, no matter what the quality or kind of his work, this sum ranging from $2 to $4. But the men have the privilege of forming themselves into gangs and contracting to furnish a certain number of pieces of machinery in a perfectly finished state at so much a piece. Under this system in 1897 the members of these voluntary organizations added from 6 to 33 per cent. to their regular wages. In one of these gangs, consisting of 55 men, 22 men whose fixed wages were $2.50 a day actually earned at the rate of $3.10; while 11 men who received $2.65 as fixed wages had it increased to $3.67. There must be very strong theoretical considerations to induce men to forego opportunities of this description. The system of apprenticeship in this establishment is too elaborate to be here explained; but, as described by Mr. Hoe to a reporter of the New York *Times*, it is framed in a highly scientific and enlightened manner. The apprentices are carefully selected and trained, having the advantages not only of the practical experience of the shops but of attendance on a night-school provided by their employers. To give up this system and subject the apprentices to the control of the trade-union, is a step for which no good reason is offered.

In spite of the usual opposition of all the bishops, the British House of Lords has voted, nearly three to one, for the bill legalizing marriage with a deceased wife's sister when contracted in the colonies. Such marriages were not necessarily void in the United Kingdom until about sixty years ago, although they were voidable, and frowned on by the church; but they have since been forbidden. It is not easy for us to understand the feeling against such marriages; but it is not easy for any people to understand the peculiarities of foreigners. No one familiar with the customs of the various races of mankind will deny that similar laws have often been efficacious, but it is doubtful if the English law has ever created the desired sentiment. The best evidence of this is to be found, not in the repeated passage of bills legalizing these marriages through the House of Commons, for that House has always known that the bills would not be accepted by the House of Lords, but in the fact that practically all the colonial legislatures have adopted similar measures. Of course, these laws have become operative only with the approval of the Secretary of State of the home Government, which thus recognizes in one part of the empire what it condemns in another. The result has been that the offspring of these colonial marriages have been in England only partly legitimate. They could succeed to the personal property of their parents, but could not inherit land. The bill now accepted by the Lords removes this anomaly, and makes it probable that the English law will soon be altered. The book of Leviticus is hardly likely to be permanently authoritative in such matters.

The latest action of the French Government in the Dreyfus case is as discreditable as anything that went before. The Minister of War, M. Cavaignac, made a declaration on the subject in the Chamber on July 7. He asserted on his honor that Dreyfus was guilty. As an honest man and a responsible minister, he assured the nation that he was positive of Dreyfus's guilt. No doubt he was, but he should have stopped there. Unluckily, he proceeded to give the proofs upon which he rested his conviction. These were (except for some hearsay evidence that Dreyfus had confessed) only three letters, two written in 1894 and one in 1896, the earliest ones speaking of "D." and "that *canaille de* D.," and the later saying that if the writer (supposedly in the conspiracy to steal official documents) was ever questioned about Dreyfus, he should deny ever having had any relations with "that Jew." But, alas for these incontestable proofs, Col. Picquart came out with the statement two days later, addressed to the Prime Minister, M. Brisson, informing him that "I am in a position to prove, before any competent tribunal, that the two documents dated 1894 can not possibly apply to Dreyfus, and that the one dated 1896 has all the marks of a forgery." Worse and worse, next day came Maître Demange, Dreyfus's counsel, asserting that none of M. Cavaignac's documents, whatever their authenticity, were produced at the trial, and that the only evidence upon which his client was convicted was the famous *bordereau*, now so discredited that the Minister of War did not even refer to it. M. Demange also thoroughly riddled the yarn about Dreyfus's confession. All this was before the country, but when an indignant Deputy attempted to get it before the Chamber, the Government moved to postpone the interpellation for one month, or until after Parliament had adjourned. Truly, there are some things which they do not do better in France.

At last it seems probable that those ancient if not venerable duties, the *octroi* taxes, are to be abolished in Paris. They are a survival from the days of walled towns, when cities had to defend themselves against the attacks of the feudal nobility and to raise a revenue like national governments. The economic objections to them are even greater than to tolls on highways, and they would have been abolished long ago had there been any easy way of making up the loss of revenue. But the practice of searching the belongings of every person entering a modern city, with a view to prevent the possible smuggling in of articles of food and drink, is so eminently mediæval as to have induced the French Government to authorize the towns which levy these taxes on certain articles to abolish or at least reduce them. In the case of Paris, authority was given either to reduce the taxes on wine, beer, and cider to a fixed minimum, which would cut off 35,000,000 francs of revenue, to abolish them altogether, which would involve a loss of 58,000,000, or to suppress all *octroi* duties, which would cost 158,000,000. It is proposed by the committee of the Municipal Council which examined the subject to abolish the duties on drinks this year, and the others in 1900. The revenue thus lost is to be regained by increasing the inheritance tax one-half, by levying a tax of 6 per cent. on the annual value of house property, to be paid by the landlord; one of 4 per cent. on the rentals, to be paid by the tenant; and a tax of ½ per cent. on the value of land whether built on or not. Some minor taxes are also to be imposed, but the chief part of the deficit will be made up by the taxes above mentioned. They are direct taxes, and require little administrative machinery for their collection, and while they will be at first severely felt, the benefits arising from the increased freedom of trade and the lowering of the prices of the necessaries of life will much exceed the evils of increased taxation of land.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

PEACE AND INDEMNITY.

There seems to be a disposition in some quarters to believe that because we are engaged in a war with Spain, and are likely to be able to impose our own terms of peace, therefore we can make these terms what we please. Accordingly it is now openly said that we shall not only free Cuba and annex Porto Rico, but dispose of the Ladrones and the Carolines, and perhaps the Canaries, and annex or sell the Philippines, and also, after making Cadiz and other Spanish coast towns pay a heavy ransom, shall impose as the price of peace an indemnity which is put anywhere from $250,000,000 to $1,000,000,000.

This view wholly ignores two important principles which have hitherto for the most part governed the intercourse of civilized nations with one another, and which are generally admitted by writers on international law. One is that contributions and indemnities are limited by the necessity which gives rise to them. The other is that the victorious nation must make peace when it attains the object of the war. The idea that one of the objects of a war always is to "make it pay for itself" has not been heard of since Napoleon's time, and it was to his effort to wring out of the European countries which he overran money enough to recoup himself, that his downfall was in great part due. As a recent writer puts it: "Throughout his career he endeavored, with marked success, to act upon the principle of making each war support itself. Contributions as well as requisitions were levied with reckless severity, wherever the soldiers of the Republic and the Empire carried their victorious standards, till at length a French army became as terrible a scourge to the people as were the feudal exactions and seigniorial privileges swept away in consequence of its successes." Modern war is distinguished from the warfare of earlier times in nothing more than the fact that no nation now attacks another with the idea of making a "good thing" out of it. It avows its object when war is declared, and when the object is attained it is ready to make peace.

Halleck, in his discussion of treaties of peace, quotes a number of authorities to the effect that a war must not be continued beyond its lawful object; and in the latest edition of the book attention is called to the fact that some writers who advocate a general right of intervention in the affairs of their neighbors, deem it "a most proper occasion" to intervene when a war, "is unlawfully continued beyond the just objects of its inception." The principle, it is safe to say, is grounded upon the fact that any other would be fatal to the peace of the world, which is always the concern of so many more millions than the issue of any particular war. If a nation, having declared war for a legitimate object, were permitted to substitute other and different objects, as it saw fit, and also to enforce these demands by means of ransoms, contributions, and indemnities, there would be nothing to prevent any war from being converted into one for conquest and subjugation, at the pleasure of the successful party; and if the principle of making the vanquished pay for the whole war were once established, this would be always made, if possible, the substituted end of the war. In the present case, for instance, we should be saying that while it is true that we went to war to pacify Cuba, and not for territorial aggrandizement, we must come out of it "whole," even if we have to overrun Spain and all her colonies and hold them and collect their revenue for twenty years.

It follows from this that there is an obligation, binding, morally and in common sense, on the victor, to be ready to make peace when the objects of the war have been attained; and it also follows that in offering peace the victor cannot afford to introduce new and impossible conditions, as that the conquered nation shall pay an indemnity inflated to the point of making the war a profitable operation to the conqueror. This obligation is especially binding in a war undertaken, as in the present case, not for conquest or destruction, but in order to restore peace, order, and prosperity on grounds partly philanthropic. If we were to impose a burden on Spain so great as to produce more wretchedness and misery in that country than we relieved in Cuba, we should be put in a false position before the world. We should, in fact, be playing over again the part of Napoleon when he offset with his rapacious impositions the good he did in freeing Europe from the old régime.

These considerations regarding the probable terms of peace are just now temporarily obscured by the fact that the main object of the war is not yet attained. The Spaniards still hold Cuba, and to get them out of Cuba is the object of the war. If they had originally yielded to our demands, there would have been no war; whenever they are ready to evacuate now or whenever they are driven out, they may fairly call upon us to offer them an honorable—and possible—peace. The question of indemnity will then arise, and the idea that we can make that what we please will be seen to be preposterous. We can hardly imagine anything which would put this country in a worse light than a reasonable suggestion of peace from Spain—a suggestion of terms such as would satisfy reasonable minds—frustrated by our insistence on an inflated indemnity. The Administration must, and no doubt will, remember that no professions of philanthrophy will count for anything in the face of such a demand, and that it would make enemies for us on every side.

No one knows better than Mr. McKinley and the officials who have, since the retirement of Mr. Sherman, managed the State Department so well, that we are bound to keep these considerations in view. When one nation engages in an avowed crusade against another in the interest of good government, it must itself bear some of the burden, and it must see that in enlarging the "area of freedom" in one direction it does not sow the earth with salt in another. There is room for a wide margin between the demands of irresponsible newspapers and any probable terms on which peace can be arranged; and it is worth while to keep always in view to what the extreme theory of our rights in war would lead. The moment any nation attempts to act on the theory that war concerns only the parties to it, it is brought into collision with the fact that it directly concerns all the world; consequently there are on every side limits to what it can do in war; and those limits are fixed by the interests and situation of the whole family of nations. A nation which refuses to recognize this takes arms against the world; consequently, every nation nowadays does recognize it, and so shall we.

JUSTICE BREWER'S WARNING.

As the "impending crisis" in our national policy will very soon arrive, it is of the greatest importance that men of high standing in the community should speak out at once. This is especially true of such lawyers as have made a study of the Constitution and political institutions of the United States. They are better fitted than ordinary citizens to appreciate the fundamental principles of free government and human liberty, and it is incumbent on them as a patriotic duty to give the country the benefit of their wisdom. Public opinion is not yet formed on the question of colonial policy; it needs first to be informed. When intelligent people really understand what this policy involves, they will be more and more inclined to hesitate before adopting it. The recent address of Mr. Harmon before the Bar Association of the State of Ohio was of a nature to arouse serious reflection, and the opinion of Justice Brewer of the Supreme Court of the United States, which has just been given to the public, through an interview, is even more weighty.

It is no doubt true, Justice Brewer concedes, that we may have to take possession of the Spanish colonies in order to compel Spain to make peace. As we overthrow the existing governments we must set up others in their place. We cannot let loose anarchy in the name of humanity. But, having assisted the people of these colonies to set up governments of their own, we should withdraw and let them work out their

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

own salvation. The reason assigned for this course by Justice Brewer is twofold. In the first place, if we annex the Spanish islands we must rule the inhabitants by force, just as England rules subject races. Her government may be wise and beneficent, but it is arbitrary and despotic. It is not self-government, and our own country has hitherto consisted of self-governing communities. Its Constitution and its laws are framed in accordance with certain fundamental and universal theories of human rights. These rights we have from the beginning pronounced to be inalienable. Our practice has not come up to our theory, but the fact that we have failed to attain our ideal is no reason for turning our back on it. It is not a question of our ability to maintain order in these colonies by force of arms. We are abundantly able to do so, but we cannot govern after such a fashion and maintain the principles of the Declaration of Independence at the same time.

A second reason advanced by Justice Brewer against acquiring colonies is the injury to the country which will follow its transformation into a military power. If we are to have a large army and a large navy, we shall be in danger of getting into trouble with all the world. "It is human nature for an army officer and a navy officer to want promotion, and if it does not come rapidly enough he wants a war to bring it about." As to the Monroe Doctrine, Justice Brewer remarks, it cannot survive the acquisition of the Philippine Islands by this country. If we assume the right to seize territory in Asia, we cannot maintain that European Powers have no right to take territory in America. Mr. Chamberlain's suggestion of an "Anglo-Saxon alliance" Justice Brewer does not favor. He is not one of those who are prepared to abandon our traditional policy. He thinks George Washington's advice is as sound to-day as when it was given. But an arbitrating tribunal which should settle all disputes between this country and England is not an alliance, and such a tribunal should be established.

In addition to these objections, which no one acquainted with the nature of our government can disregard, Justice Brewer makes some suggestions to the religious portion of the community. He says that he has read in a good many religious papers and heard in some sermons that, because we have the best civilization in the world, it is our destiny and our Christian duty to reach out and make other nations accept it. In his view, the best way to make our civilization of value to the world is by example, not by force, especially not by appropriating territory. In this view we think all who believe that goodness cannot be produced by compulsion must concur. If our religious brethren will reflect, they will find the consequences of the doctrine that we must force our civilization on inferior races rather startling. The Spanish have been engaged in work of this kind, with questionable benefit to themselves or the races upon whom they have imposed the Christian religion. We cannot doubt that Philip II. sincerely believed that orthodox Christianity must be maintained in the Low Countries, and felt it his duty to extirpate the heretics; but his policy has met with general reprobation. All the world has been ever since pointing out that Philip's mistake was in thinking it right to make other people accept the religious doctrines and principles of morality which he thought the best, instead of leaving them free to choose what they thought the best. It is true that our religious papers take the ground that we are much more righteous and more enlightened than Philip II., and that the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands are much inferior to those of the Low Countries. Perhaps it would be better to have this judgment pronounced by other nations rather than by ourselves; but, conceding its truth, it is dangerous to infer that we have sufficient righteousness to diffuse it through millions of Asiatics by military force. The agency is not exactly Christian; and we are in danger of losing a good deal of our own righteousness in trying to impose it on our neighbors.

FORCIBLE ANNEXATION.

Señor E. M. Hostos, who is said to be the representative of the Porto Rican Juntas in the United States, had an interview in the *Times* of Friday in which he set forth at considerable length the view that Porto Rico is entitled to decide her own destiny by a fair vote of her people, and that she ought not to be forcibly annexed to the United States without the consent of the inhabitants of the island. "It looks now," he says, "as if my native land is destined to become American territory whether the inhabitants desire it or not, and to this I, as well as many of my associates, can interpose serious objections. I wish, however, at the beginning to deny any reports to the effect that several Puerto Rican Juntas, in foreign countries or in this country, have advised their compatriots to offer any resistance to the United States troops in any manner. I fully realize that an expression of that character made on American soil would be treason, and I am quite sure that no sane person would ever utter it. Should I succeed in obtaining the desired interview with President McKinley, I shall endeavor to impress upon him the fact that if Puerto Rico is to be annexed to the United States, it should be with the consent of its population, expressed through a regular plébiscite. If the majority of the people desire it, we shall all bow to the majority and accept the inevitable."

These views accord with the sentiments in which the American people have been nurtured and in which they still believe. Fortunately for Señor Hostos and his mission, the same views were maintained by President McKinley as recently as last December. In his annual message to Congress, when discussing the Cuban question, he said: "I speak not of forcible annexation, for that cannot be thought of. That, by our code of morality, would be criminal aggression." Yet the announcement was made from Washington last week, apparently by authority, that it was the purpose of our Government to seize the island of Porto Rico and hold it permanently. In other words, we commit the act of criminal aggression which President McKinley eight months ago said was impossible under our code of morality.

This act of criminal aggression, it should be observed, does not consist in the military operation of seizing, but in the political act of forcibly annexing. Given a state of war, our right to seize is unquestioned. Señor Hostos concedes all that can be claimed on that score. The only question in dispute is as to the forcible retention of the island, regardless of the wishes of the inhabitants, after the war is ended. It should be added that the case of Porto Rico is considerably stronger against forcible annexation than the case of Cuba, upon which President McKinley commented with so much energy last December. There has been no rebellion in Porto Rico, no disturbance of the peace internally, and no sign that any party in the island desired our interference. Hence the reason for our presence in Porto Rico at all is merely that we can there strike a blow at the Power with which we are at war. With the inhabitants of the island we have no quarrel except the constructive one that they are the subjects of Spain.

The argument that we need a coaling station in the West Indies at about the place where Porto Rico is situated counts for nothing in the forum of morals. That has been the pirate's argument from time immemorial. Every robber wants something that his victim owns. Mr. F. B. Thurber puts this doctrine in its true colors in a letter which he has just addressed to President McKinley (having favored us with a copy also), advocating the retention of the Philippines. Mr. Thurber looks to the Koran, however, rather than to the Bible, for precepts to sustain it. He says:

> "Production has outrun consumption, and this industrial revolution is at the bottom of the movement of the principal nations to parcel out the territory of the weaker nations as hunters divide their game, to find a market for their wares. The Koran says: 'Every man is entitled to as many wives as his right hand can take and hold,' and the nations of the earth are now acting on

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

this principle, from the little German war-god down."

Reasoning from this analogy, Mr. Thurber, who signs himself in an official capacity as "President of the United States Export Association," contends that we should hold the Philippine Islands in the interest, not of a plurality of wives, but of a surplus of exports. He says that Tennyson's dream of "the parliament of man, the federation of the world," is a long way off. Apparently he would put it off still longer. In the procession of nations where the little German war-god figures, he contends that the Anglo-Saxon race is perforce obliged to take a place, "and it ought not to be at the tail end," he adds.

The rules of morality are not changed by a state of war, but our way of looking at them generally is changed. That which was justly considered "criminal aggression" nine months ago, becomes a laudable proceeding when observed through the smoke of gunpowder. The imposition of a hateful government upon an unoffending people, in violation of our own theories of government, in the teeth of our Declaration of Independence, becomes a very simple matter when the roar of cannon deafens our ears. It is impossible, however, that such inversions of the principles of republican government, such shameless departures from our own declared purposes and intentions, should take place without impairing the love of liberty in our own breasts and producing internal changes most deleterious to ourselves.

CONQUEST AND DEBT.

Before the war began, it was frequently urged that the Cuban question might be settled by an assumption of a so-called Cuban debt of $100,000,000, or $200,000,000—that if Spain could be relieved of this, other questions at issue might be easily disposed of. But there is not, and never was in reality, any Cuban debt, all expenses incurred by Spain on account of the island being lumped together in a national debt. Even when it was distinctly raised for Cuban purposes, it was still made a Spanish obligation. Notwithstanding this, a large part of this indebtedness would never have been incurred had not Spain owned Cuba; and supposing that the war ends in the loss of Cuba, will the claim be put forward that a division ought to be effected, and the new Cuban government be saddled with such a proportion of the whole as may seem fair? Or, on the other hand, will it be maintained that the loss of all Spain's outlying possessions would not affect her indebtedness? Is there any principle applicable to such a case?

Writers on international law do not throw much light on the question, for want of material, but we are inclined to think the want of examples itself is significant. As a general rule the colonies and provinces which have thrown off the yoke of a mother country and succeeded in establishing their independence have not adopted their share of the general debt, partly because it would have been impossible to ascertain it, partly because they threw off the yoke, among other reasons, in order to escape it, and partly because, in order to escape it, they have usually submitted to heavy pecuniary burdens. If, after the American Revolution, it had been proposed that New York should bear a quota of the English debt, the claim could easily have been offset by a production of New York's war balance-sheet. The same thing might be said of the position of the Spanish-American states at the close of their revolt against Spain.

There is one historical case of a division of a state followed by an apportionment of its debt—that of Belgium, which, when it was set up as an independent nation, took over a portion of the Netherlands debt; but the case is not in point, because that was really an arrangement made at the dictation of Europe, and consented to by Belgium, and was looked upon by no one concerned as an illustration of a general principle, applicable to all states.

When a colony or province sets up for itself after a war, there is another reason which usually prevents the question of the apportionment of the debt from arising, and that is that there is no one who can enforce an apportionment. The parent country is powerless, because it is defeated, and the holders of its securities have no means of getting their claims to an apportionment, if any, considered. Hall, in his treatise on International Law, after going over the unsatisfactory discussion of the matter by his predecessors, says that "no doubt the debt of a state from which another separates itself ought generally to be divided between the two, proportionately to their respective resources, as a matter of justice to the creditors, because it is seldom that the value of their security is not affected by a diminution of the state indebted to them"; "but," he adds, "the obligation is a moral, not a legal one."

The case of Cuba differs from any of those to which we have referred, because, although the colony has undertaken to throw off the yoke of Spain, it has not actually done so, but has devolved the task upon the United States. The United States, for reasons of its own, has undertaken to drive Spain out, and to establish a new, free, and independent state in Cuba in its place. When this is done, should the new state coming into existence assume part of the Spanish debt? We have seen that there is really no rule of international law applicable to such a case. Are there any moral considerations which are sufficiently strong to lead to any conclusion?

In examining this question the United States would not approach it as a benevolent despot—that is, as a person clothed with absolute power and a simple desire to do justice. It has an interest in the question. In settling the terms of peace, the possibility of Spain's paying any pecuniary indemnity depends to a certain extent on the disposition made of the debt. It had, according to the census of 1890, the enormous debt of $1,251,453,696, or $73.85 for every man, woman, and child (against $14.63 in the United States), and this debt has since greatly increased. Consequently, if it is to lose Cuba, a main source of revenue, and be still responsible for the whole debt, its ability to pay an indemnity must be very slight. On the other hand, if Cuba were to assume part of it, Spain to that extent would be relieved. But the side of Cuba must also be considered. For what has the debt been incurred? Is the island full of railroads and bridges and magnificent roads, which represent a large portion of the Spanish debt? Not at all. The money has been mainly squandered and wasted in attempts to put down insurrections—that is, in that very misgovernment which has brought on the war. Why should this be saddled upon Cubans, who were certainly not responsible for it? Spain, instead of giving any equivalent for the money which it has been drawing from Cuba to pay the interest on its bonds, has converted half the island into a waste.

We doubt, therefore, whether the sense of justice of those who will have to deal with the question will be satisfied by any arrangement which saddles Cuba with a debt in order that we may get a pecuniary indemnity, but is it not equally clear that all idea of bleeding Spain on both sides at once is out of the question? To take from her her most valuable property, and thus diminish her means of paying her debts, and then to make her pay an indemnity for submitting to the operation, would hardly do.

There have been cases in which a conquering state has taken upon itself a portion of the public debt of the state from which it has seized territory. In 1866 Italy, by convention with France, took upon itself so much of the papal debt as was proportionate to the revenues of the papal provinces. When the United States conquered Mexico and took in a great part of that state, it did not assume part of the Mexican debt, but agreed, "in consideration of the extension acquired by the boundaries of the United States," to pay Mexico $15,000,000. As we had Mexico entirely at our mercy, this was a sort of recognition of the "moral" principle that there should be pecuniary compensation for the absorption of territory which is a possible source of revenue. But in the present case we are conquering, not in our own interest, but with a view to

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

turning the territory over to the inhabitants. What we give to the Cubans we take from Spain, and so diminish what we can exact from the latter on our own behalf.

THE POSSIBLE SALVATION OF SPAIN.

The French writer M. Yves Guyot recently declared that all enlightened Spaniards of his acquaintance expected that their country would lose, as a result of the war, all its colonial possessions. Cuba and Porto Rico and the Philippines would go, as the great colonial empire of Spain in South America had gone early in the century, and would go for much the same general causes. Yet these intelligent Spaniards, said M. Guyot, do not expect their nation to be ruined, or even desperately impoverished, by the loss. They see in the very woes and disasters of their country the possibility of its political regeneration. Nor is this a mere afterthought, a stubborn optimism determined to distil out the soul of goodness in things evil. Before the war, even before the Cuban rebellion, thoughtful Spaniards not a few said that the colonies were a millstone about the neck of Spain. National pride compelled their retention, but both politically and economically they meant danger and loss to the mother country. That this was the case all along only the more observant could perceive. The events of the war may be expected to force the truth home to even the common mind.

The political mischief wrought by the colonies in Spanish public life is patent. In the first place, the colonial establishments were a standing example of political corruption. Favoritism, dishonesty, peculation, incompetency mountain high, were the chief marks of the colonial service. Unimpeachable Spanish testimony establishes this. Contemporary Spanish fiction has for one of its presuppositions, one of its hackneyed stage devices, that the broken-down politician, the ruined nobleman, the reckless adventurer, had but to go off somewhere *ultramar*, as they call it, to come back in a short time with a fortune. How it was made you must not inquire too curiously. It is certain that it was not made, as fortunes of Englishmen have been made in India (Macaulay's, for example), by high official salaries. The nominal pay was barely sufficient to live on, but somehow the "savings" out of it were enormous. Now of course the effect of all this on public opinion and political life in Spain could be only demoralizing. It put a constant premium on official intrigue and unscrupulousness, and made a life of steady industry and honest dealing seem the fool's choice. Moreover, the science of government by corruption could not be confined to the colonies. The poison was sure to spread from the extremities to heart and brain, and it did.

One way in which the toxic effect was produced was in the creation of what has probably been Spain's greatest political curse—political generals. A governor-generalship in the colonies has long been the greatest prize before the eyes of Spanish military men. This was not simply on account of the opportunities of plunder offered. These were great, and they were too commonly seized, Prof. Worcester, an American who spent some time in the Philippines, asserts it as of his own knowledge that Gen. Weyler, when Governor-General of those islands, deposited $4,000,000 to his private account in the Bank of France. We do not vouch for all these stories of magnificent stealing, but there must be an element of truth in them. One resulting evil has been the building up of the immense political power in Spain of retired Governor-Generals. They go home with their fortunes, however acquired, and at once take to politics. And there is no more sinister figure in Spanish public life than Spanish generals. Weyler and Polavieja and Campos and Daban and the others—these are the men continuing the tradition of military rule from which Spain has suffered so much. Mainly in the colonies they have nursed their power, and with the loss of the colonies much of this power may disappear.

The economic evils of Spain's colonial policy have grown out of the vicious fiscal system under which its colonies were ruled. They were but so many oranges to be squeezed dry for Spain. Now an orange that is always being squeezed will not grow; and a colony that is kept under and mulcted every day for the benefit of the home Government inevitably stagnates. We see at this moment in Santiago the immediate effect of a more enlightened policy. The low rates of duty which were formerly restricted to Spanish goods are now applied to all importations, and trade at once begins to spring up. The price of flour, for example, has fallen to little more than one-half what it was when Spain had a monopoly. And alert business men and capitalists are already moving to develop the wonderful resources of the province left almost untouched under the repressive Spanish system. The manufacturing centres of Spain, which had long made fortunes out of the colonies under the tariffs enacted for their benefit, and which were among the most violent in urging war to retain them, are now foremost in asking for peace. They see that the game is up, as far as they are concerned; and it may be hoped that the final discrediting of the taxing system under which the monopolies of Catalonia have been built up may work out great good for Spain as well as for the emancipated colonies.

These considerations it does not perhaps become the United States to urge upon Spain with effusive unction. It would be too much like telling a man, after taking away from him an outlying farm, that really he would be much better off without it, and that he would cultivate his remaining garden to much greater advantage. But at the same time there is such a thing as recognizing historic causes and the working of general principles; and when Frenchmen like M. Guyot are saying it, and Spaniards of light and leading are hoping it, there is no harm in expressing the wish that Spain may yet find this desolating war a blessing in disguise.

THE STATE AND THE ARTS.

A good deal of surprise has been expressed in the American and English press at the address of the German Emperor to the actors and singers of the Berlin Royal Theatre and the Royal Opera on the tenth anniversary of his accession, in which he dwelt on the importance of their fostering "idealism" and not producing "un-German" plays. But an examination of what he said shows that there was nothing very extraordinary in his remarks, and probably our surprise at them comes chiefly from our not being familiar with the German conception of the relation of the state to the stage. Theatre and opera in Germany are instrumentalities of the state, just as the Roman amphitheatre was in the days of Caligula, to whom the naughty enemies of the German Emperor have compared him; as King of Prussia, he has as much to do with the support of the artists who sing and act in Berlin as his predecessors in Rome had to do with providing salaries for the gladiators. The stage is, as he very justly says, one of his "weapons," and it is a proof that we have made some progress since the time when Rome was the capital of the world that he should have a lofty view of the use he ought to make of it.

In America and England the state does nothing for or with the stage. There are no subventions; there are (at least in this country) no state boxes; theatre and opera are purely private ventures, and consequently there is no reason why the President of the United States or Queen Victoria or Gov. Black should hold forth to actors and singers at all. Such a speech as that made by the Emperor, in which he talks about the stage contributing "to the formation of mind and of character, and to the education of the moral perceptions," would be made in Anglo-Saxondom by a manager. It reminds one, indeed, of the recent address by Sir Henry Irving. The speaker would not, of course, refer to his "lamented father and grandfather," or say anything about "the duty of a monarch," but he would be sure to talk of the necessity of high standards, which is all that "idealism" can possibly mean, and of the necessity of

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

elevating the stage and making it what it ought to be.

On the whole, considering the historical relation between the theatre and the king, grand duke, or other sovereign potentate in every German state, the Emperor's speech was for him a moderate and enlightened piece of oratory, and it was evidently so received by his audience, on whose behalf Count Hochberg, the General Superintendent of Royal Theatres, said in reply that "it was only under the eyes of the Emperor, and with the aid of his wise counsel and his profound and keen appreciation of art," that the Royal Theatres had been able to attain their present position. And that very likely is true, for the Emperor is a man of very varied tastes and a tremendous art-lover.

The American and English system of private support of art is one of those parts of our ordinary life that are so bred in the bone that we grasp with difficulty the opposite system, so common elsewhere. But there are in America special circumstances which do not exist in any other great country in the world, which seem to give the conception of the arts as cultivated by "the state" the air of grotesqueness. In order to have a connection regularly and naturally established between the arts and "the state," you have got to have a state at the head of which stand one or two eminent personages to whom art is something of the first importance. Now, while there are in America any number of persons of whom this may be said, they do not, as a general thing, figure either as Presidents, Governors, Mayors, or bosses; and yet for such purposes "the state" would naturally be represented by one of these four classes. The question has in this city been brought within the range of practical consideration by the creation of an art commission and the projection of several very important public enterprises, more or less connected with the domain, not, indeed, of theatre or opera, but of taste and letters. The Legislature, very wisely, it seems to us, refrained from giving to the Art Commission any substantial powers except that of criticising and approving or rejecting designs; and the commission was almost altogether made up of distinguished artists or amateurs. That is, the connection between it and "the state," or, what is the same thing in this case, the city, was made as slight as possible.

But in one or two enterprises, otherwise under private control, but designed for public objects of the highest importance, such as the Zoölogical Garden and the Library, appeal must be made to the Mayor to sanction an outlay of money. Our Mayor in this case represents a great public corporation, greater in population and far greater in wealth than the whole country was a hundred years ago. He has a long term of office, and was elected at the very same election which attracted the attention of the whole world and started us on a new career of greatness. When these enterprises, therefore, come before the Mayor, we get a little glimpse of what view "the state" with us would be likely to take of matters of taste, art, and learning. Mayor Van Wyck is a good representative of the state, for he comes from just the class from which all the offices are filled. He is, in his way, the *locum tenens*, the great "stadtholder," of the head of all, who has been racing his horses in England, and who for Greater New York corresponds as nearly as our institutions permit to the Kaiser for Germany. He makes a speech about the Zoölogical Garden and about the Library which shows his idea of the whole subject. He is perfectly willing to give money, but not unless he and Croker can make all the appointments—that is, spoil the whole work. He says that all he wants is that "the city" should have "control," but that is what he means. And that is just what those who are interested in the Zoölogical Garden and the Library and the city want to prevent. In other words, instead of looking on the state as the natural patron of the arts, we have got to the other extreme, and regard it as likely to be hostile to them.

We think that for ourselves our own system is the best. "Idealism" and art, and letters and music flourish better with us under the fostering care of private enterprise, and for our part we would not make any change just now. We had once a "grand opera-house" in New York, with a subvention, too, from its patron, who, if not "the state," helped to control it, but it did not last, and did not even for the time create any enthusiasm among those who wished to elevate the stage. In this field our inherited prejudices are sound, and when the Mayor talks about the importance of the city controlling the Library or the Zoölogical Garden, we recall the proposal of an earlier official of the same school that the statues in the Park should have a coat of whitewash.

EDWARD L. WALTER.

WEST BRANCH, Mich., July 17, 1898.

The recent ocean horror deprives American scholarship of a worthy representative, and the University of Michigan of one of its oldest and ablest teachers. For many years Prof. Walter had been in the habit of spending his summers in Europe, and when he sailed from New York upon the doomed steamer *La Bourgogne* it was no doubt with the nonchalance natural to an experienced traveller. But this time the treacherous deep had marked him for a cruel sacrifice. He was not widely known through his writings, for he had but little literary ambition; but a host of grateful pupils have been shocked by his death, while the inner circle of those who stood nearest him are sadly realizing that they have lost a rare friend.

The late Prof. Walter was born in 1845 at Litchfield, a village of southern Michigan, and passed his boyhood in decent poverty, amid social conditions very like those which might have been found at that time in any rural community of New England. His father was a wagon-maker and for many years the village justice. Young Walter early showed bookish propensities—was born a-readin', as a local wiseacre said of him—and easily found means to get himself ready for college. In 1862 he enlisted as a private soldier, went to the front in the Army of the Potomac, and bore his modest part in the battle of Fredericksburg. Shortly after this he was attacked by a dangerous illness which put an end to his military service. Having recovered his health, he became for a short time a telegraph operator, but dropped this business to enter the University of Michigan in 1864. Working his way through college, he soon distinguished himself as a student, and was appointed even before his graduation to an instructorship in Latin. Soon after receiving his degree he was made assistant professor of Latin under the well-known Dr. Henry S. Frieze, who had befriended him in manifold ways during his college course. In this capacity he taught very acceptably until 1874, when he went to Germany for advanced study in classical philology. Three years later he received the degree of doctor of philosophy from the University of Leipzig, his dissertation being upon the subject of "Rhotacism in the Old Italian Languages, and the Exceptions." The collection of examples made by the diligent young scholar is still useful, but his phonetics would no longer pass muster. He himself never cared to follow up the line of study in which he had won his degree, his interests being altogether literary. As a Latin scholar he read widely and with keen zest, but without ever becoming so hopelessly enamoured of the old Romans that he did not welcome a convenient opportunity which came to him for changing his allegiance. In 1878 he was put in charge of the modern-language instruction at Ann Arbor.

Institutions of high grade no longer proceed upon the theory that any good man who has studied abroad is necessarily fitted to handle college French and German. Even so lately as twenty years ago the appointment of Prof. Walter caused some comment in professional circles. But in this instance no mistake had been made. The manly character and the scholarly mind, coupled with extreme conscientiousness and an unusual gift for teaching, soon made amends for the lack of initial preparation. His department gained steadily in the esteem of colleagues and students; he made the work a *res severa* to every one, a *verum gaudium* to his advanced classes.

For a while the literature of Germany held first place in Prof. Walter's favor, but with his repeated visits to France and Italy he transferred his affections more and more to the Romance languages, and began to look forward to the time when these should be his only official concern. The change came in 1887, when the Germanic languages were set off as a separate department under other hands. Since that time he had kept the even tenor of his way as a lover of books and an inspiring teacher of literature. By his personal qualities no less than by his amazing wealth of knowledge and his remarkable skill in teaching, he had made

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

himself an academic power of the first rank.

As was said above, Prof. Walter wrote but little—he preferred to read, enjoy, and ruminate. While a very accurate scholar and a keen critic of scholarship, he seldom gave himself the trouble to read a paper before a learned body or undertook even a minor research with a view to publication. He shrank from the bother and the formality of printing—it would not make much difference to the world in the long run, and there were so many more interesting things to do. His friends would sometimes tax him good-naturedly with indolence, but this was not the right word; for while he had a pronounced talent for aimless browsing in good books with choice bindings, and spent much time in the passive absorption of ideas and impressions, he was also given to close thinking, and close thinking is hard work. Nor was it modesty that kept him out of print, for he was a very positive character and wont to express himself in strong language. A favorite play of his humor was to assert vehemently his dense ignorance of the matter in hand, and then proceed to a still more vehement expression of his personal opinion. His temper had more in common with the literary artist than with the philologist; and when he wrote, it was to portray a man or an epoch rather than to mass arguments or establish a thesis. A specimen of his best work is to be found in his Introduction to Mrs. Harrington's translation of Rousseau's 'Contrat Social' (G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1893). This admirably lucid and vigorous piece of writing only makes one regret the more that its author should so persistently have hidden his light. Among great writers his earlier favorites were Lessing and Montaigne, but latterly he cared most for Dante. By the attraction of opposites, it would seem, his acute analytic mind found a peculiar fascination, as such minds have often found, in the "mystic unfathomable song" of the mediæval Italian poet.

Prof. Walter never married, but there was little in him of the bachelor recluse. He loved the society of congenial friends and was a welcome guest in many homes. At the same time, his scheme of social duty made but scant provision for the duty of letting one's self be bored; on this subject he held radical views which he would express with characteristic vigor. He was fond of discussion, had a scholar's minute knowledge of half-a-dozen literatures, kept himself well informed upon current events, and had a tenacious memory that brimmed over with anecdote and illustration. He rarely spoke in public, and he imagined that he had no talent in that direction; but for private discourse his talent was immense. His ordinary manner of speech was brusque and impetuous—the mirror of his alert and incisive mind; before the other's thought was fully disengaged he would catch it up eagerly and send it back riddled with controversial bullets, or fortified with some new consideration, as the case might be. In intimate conversation upon graver topics he sometimes assumed the rôle of the genial pessimist, but in the main his view of life was cheery. He found it all intensely interesting. More than once the friend who writes these lines has heard him say, after some prolonged lucubration over the tangle of human fate, something like this: Well, however it may be with metempsychosis and immortality and all that, there should at least be a provision by which we may return once in a hundred years merely to see how things are going on. And so may it be, that or something better. Meanwhile there is some comfort at least in the Roman poet's *non omnis moriar*. The memory of intellectual honesty, of placid humor, of genial combativeness in tone and speech, of wide sympathy and loyal friendship—all this is not lost with the form that lies off Sable Island,

> "With dead calm in the noble breast
> That heaves but with the heaving deep."

C. T.

REVOLUTIONARY IMPERIALISM.

LONDON, July 12, 1898.

I went to the American dinner last week, and heard some excellent speech-making from Mr. Hay, Lord Kimberley, Mr. Bryce, and Prof. Jebb. But I was amused to see among the diners the familiar "mug" of Richard Croker, looking as placid and as "patriotic" as if he were seated in his club in New York. Of course it was not possible to prevent his buying a ticket like anybody else; but what we were not prepared for was that the one American who spoke, except Mr. Hay, should call attention to his presence in terms of humorous eulogy, amid the cheers and laughter of the company. A distinguished Englishman remarked to me, in coming away, that this cynical indifference to Croker's character and career did not augur well for the coming greatness of America, of which we heard so much. For a moment's reflection on what constitutes the "greatness" of a state would have shown any intelligent man that Croker was really a far worse and more formidable enemy of the United States than all the fleets and armies of Spain. They might kill the body, but the Crokers kill the soul of the republic. He has done it more harm in five years already than all the forces of Spain could do it in fifty years; and that, at such a juncture, a large company of Americans should sit down to dinner with him in a foreign city, and hail his presence with cheers and laughter, on the anniversary of the nation, was a little disquieting for fastidious souls.

I find that nearly everybody of note here hails our new "imperial" policy with pleasure. Even those who fear its effects on our institutions, feel that, in the present condition, it offers the best hope, not only for the future of England, but for that of Western civilization in general. The mania for enormous armaments which has raged on the Continent ever since 1870 has produced the effects which might have been expected—loads of debt, discontent among the taxpayers, fear of each other, great jealousy of England as the one successful nation of the lot, eagerness for new markets to keep the home populations quiet, large forces constantly under arms to shoot them down when they "emeute." The state of things on the Continent is, in fact, enough to excite dismal forebodings among the friends of free government everywhere. Free institutions seem to be going to pieces in Italy, France, and Austria. Germany is the only orderly state left on the Continent; but in order to keep orderly, it has, apparently, to hand itself over to a kind of mediæval despot, at the head of an immense army. It is not surprising that, under these circumstances, thoughtful Englishmen are afraid of some sort of combination against England, which might result in the extinction of free thought and free speech in Europe, and the establishment of some sort of militarism as the future régime of the modern world; democracy having apparently failed so miserably, and Socialism, or some other plan for the abolition of human eminence, being so threatening. It is not unnatural that they should, therefore, turn for help to the Power to which they have taught the art of freedom, and which they have taught to love it and cling to it.

But it is not their business to teach us how to be "imperial" with safety to the institutions under which we have grown into our present greatness. Here are some of the difficulties which, as far as I have been able to learn from thoughtful men who really wish well to America, they think we shall have to face somehow. They believe our Constitution will have to be seriously altered, or, still worse, to be disregarded—a very dangerous business. For instance, they do not see how we are to govern colonies or dependencies with our present system of appointment to office. Of the probable results after a while of our present system for "imperial" purposes, Spain offers a good example. An English statesman said to me the other day that a civil service of the highest order was, for Great Britain, an absolute necessity. Empire means the neighborhood of jealous rivals; it means the holding in subjection, with a small force, of large populations of alien races, whom you must govern as justly and wisely as is consistent with keeping them subject. To do this you must not only get good men as servants, but must get the best men the country affords, no matter of what party or creed. This the English do, and the bigger the empire grows, the more religiously they do it. For instance, when they seized Egypt, they did not loose on it a lot of scallawag politicians. They put it in charge, in every department, of the ablest men they could get hold of. Now no one seriously supposes they could do this if the executive had to consult either the House of Lords or the House of Commons about every important appointment. Intrigue and "influence" would in that case play exactly the same rôle here that they play in America, and we know with what results. Senators probably think they can have "empire" and "spoils" and big money-making wars, under the system with which they helped to officer our present volunteer army, and can declare war whenever the humor seizes them, and raise the army for the war afterwards, as they have done in fighting poor Spain, when they get an "empire"; but nobody here believes it. They say that as soon as we set up our empire, we must deprive the Senate of all power of approval or confirmation, and leave the whole responsibility of selecting officers, civil and military, to the executive. Those who say this are not "enemies of America" either. They are men who are looking forward to our alliance.

But they go farther than this. They say we must alter our Constitution so as to establish some sort of financial responsibility. Of course, we have successfully turned away popular attention from our financial difficulties at home by our Cuban war. Nobody in America thinks or cares about public finance now, but foreign statesmen and financiers keep thinking and talking about it, and this is what they say: The United States have gone on for thirty-five years with

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

disordered finances, the two great parties competing as to which could best keep the disorder going, and without anybody's being responsible for the Government business except a huge, shifting body called a "party," and a couple of committees which are selected without any reference to their financial knowledge, and have no connection with each other. These impudent critics say, as the result of long experience of public finance, that with an empire this cannot go on, that we must change our system altogether, and provide a Finance Minister with power to frame and introduce financial measures and get them passed; or, in other words, put our government on the financial basis which the experience of mankind has shown to be necessary to the enduring prosperity either of the individual or of the State.

I suppose all thoughtful people at home can find abundant illustration of these criticisms and suggestions in the history of the Republican party, especially during the past year. I transmit them with the more confidence because they are the criticisms of friends who are eager to see us enter on a course which I, for my own part, believe, whatever it might do for the national vanity or the material prosperity of the United States, would be fatal to the "great experiment." E. L. G.

FILON'S MÉRIMÉE.

PARIS, July 13, 1898.

M. Augustin Filon, preceptor of the Prince Imperial who died so unfortunately in Zululand, and who has written of late years some essays on England and English life, has added a new volume to the already extensive collection of "Les Grands Écrivains Français," published by Hachette (New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer). The writer whom he has chosen is Mérimée, the author of 'Colomba' and some other works which have become classical.

It was no easy task to make a biographical notice of Mérimée, as he was an enigmatic character and studiously avoided, all his lifetime, admitting the public and even his best friends to the secret of his actions, his motives, his likes and dislikes. "Cache ta vie" might have been his motto. He was a sort of intellectual Epicurean, and might have said also, with Horace:

"Odi profanum vulgus et arceo."

His contempt for vulgar notoriety may have arisen from the fact that he was a Parisian, born and bred in a capital. His family was, however, of Norman origin. His grandfather was the business man, the agent, of Marshal de Broglie, and lived in his château in Normandy (still the possession of the present Duke de Broglie). The daughter of this ancestor married a M. Fresnel, whose son became Fresnel, the celebrated physicist, who discovered some of the most important laws of optics. Mérimée's father was a painter; he became the secretary of our École des Beaux-Arts, and wrote a considerable work on the 'History of Oil-Painting,' from Van Eyck to our time. He married Mlle. Moreau, whom he had met in a school where he gave lessons.

Prosper Mérimée was born on the 28th of September, 1803. Curiously enough, he was not baptized; but we must recall the period when Napoleon's Concordat was made. He received, however, the best possible education in the quiet and honest home of his parents; but he never felt the religious emotions of a Christian infancy, and often said afterwards, of himself and his friends, "We pagans." He pursued his studies at the Collège Henri-IV., and it is remembered that he was very early an Anglomaniac. He spoke English, dressed like a young Englishman, wrote an English hand. His father was in relations with Englishmen, Holcroft, Northcote (a pupil of Sir Joshua Reynolds), Hazlitt. Mérimée was not a brilliant pupil at school, and spent much time in studying foreign languages as well as Latin and Greek. He became very familiar with English and Spanish literature. Towards 1825, we find in the list of his friends Ampère, a son of the celebrated physicist, and Stapfer, the first translator into French of Goethe's "Faust." He was introduced by Ampère at the Abbaye-aux-Bois, and saw, in the salon of Madame Récamier, Chateaubriand in all his glory. He had the good fortune to be admitted to the circle of the *Journal des Débats*, and to enter into familiarity with Thiers, Cousin, Sainte-Beuve, Rémusat, Vitet, and Stendhal. "The influence," says M. Filon, "exercised by Stendhal on Mérimée during the decisive years in which his literary eclecticism was formed, was considerable, even more than Mérimée himself was aware." Mérimée said that he never could agree with Stendhal about anybody or anything, but this did not prevent him from receiving many new notions and ideas from Stendbal, and, in his letters to Mlle. Dacquin, Mérimée had the justice to say that Stendhal's ideas had "déteint sur les siennes."

The influence of Spanish literature, of Cervantes, Lope de Vega, Calderon, is very visible in the "Théâtre de Clara Gazul," a series of five pieces which Mérimée read to his friends at one of the Sundays of Delécluze, the art critic of the *Débats*. Approbation was unanimous. "L'Amour Africain" and "Inès Mendo" are pure imitations of the ancient Spanish drama, with its blind, absolute, unthinking, illogical passion. The "Espagnols en Danemark" is more artistic, and is in parts a real masterpiece. The play is intensely romantic, but there is in it a very realistic character, *Madame de Tourville*, the political spy, a Parisian intriguer. We see already in this piece the whole of Mérimée: he thought himself a Romanticist, and was thrown into the Romantic current, but he was essentially a precursor of the Realistic school. These five plays were given to the public in 1825, as the work of a Spanish actress, Clara Gazul, with an imaginary biography; some copies appeared with a portrait of the author, who was represented with bare shoulders, a mantilla, and a gold cross on her neck. This portrait of Mérimée is very rare, and is much sought for by bibliophiles.

The "Théâtre de Clara Gazul" excited much curiosity. The second volume published by Mérimée, in 1827, the 'Guzla,' had not so much success. It was a collection of so-called Illyrian ballads and popular songs. It too was a mystification, since Mérimée had not been in Illyria and composed his popular legends himself. Goethe took notice of the book and directed the attention of the German public to it. Pushkin translated several pieces into Russian. M. Filon says that "the 'Guzla' marked the culmination of the creative power in Mérimée. Never, at any moment of his life, either before or afterwards, did he show as much imagination as in these pretended Illyrian songs." There is a barbarous note in them which Mérimée never found again. In 1828 he published the "Jacquerie" and in 1829 the 'Chronique du Temps de Charles IX.' The "Jacquerie," a drama in which are represented the miseries of the people in the Middle Ages, is no longer read. The 'Chronique' still is, and with much pleasure; it is an historical novel *à la* Walter Scott, extremely dramatic, full of amusing incidents, with excellent and very exact local coloring. The drama furnished the subject for Meyerbeer's fine opera, "The Huguenots," which excites the highest and noblest sentiments of mankind, religion, faith, and love. The style of the 'Chronique' is excellent; it is clear and rapid, and recalls the best French models. It pleased Mérimée afterwards to call it "le méchant roman," but it will survive many other of his works. The "Amis des Livres" have lately published a new edition of it, with pretty illustrations.

I can give only the titles of some short novels of Mérimée's which followed the 'Chronique': the 'Mécontents,' the 'Vision de Charles XI.,' 'Tamango,' the 'Vase Étrusque,' the 'Double Méprise,' the 'Partie de Trictrac,' 'Mateo Falcone,' the 'Enlèvement de la Redoute.' The two last are masterpieces in their way. The dramatic effect in both is all the greater in that the style possesses an extraordinary lucidity and simplicity. How far we are, when we read these stories, from the modern descriptive style, which piles adjectives upon adjectives, and covers pages where Mérimée would have been content with a line, if not with a word. M. Filon justly compares these short stories of Mérimée's to medals; they are truly the medals of our literature, as, in the smallest compass, they give us the sensation of greatness, the illusion of distance, the vision of crowds. The medallist cannot be indistinct and vague like the painter; he must be precise, though he ought to be suggestive.

Mérimée had now become a lion; he was a visitor at Madame Récamier's (though he detested her); he was well received at Victor Hugo's, but tried in vain to make the great poet acquainted with Stendhal. He was a great dandy, affected to consider the knotting of a cravat as a great affair in life, to be sceptical and blasé. He was really rather timid, and, perhaps for this reason, found himself more at ease with women than with men. In 1825 he made a journey to England with Étienne Delécluze, Eugène Delacroix, the painter, and Duvergier de Hauranne, who wished to study the mechanism of the English elections. He became acquainted with Ellice, afterwards one of the whips of the Liberal party. In 1830 he visited Spain, and took notes which he subsequently used in 'Carmen.' He made the acquaintance of the Countess of Teba, mother of the future Empress of the French, then only four years old.

On his return he found all his friends in power, after the Revolution of July. He was himself appointed chief of the cabinet of a minister, M. d'Argout, who was successively Minister of the Navy, of Commerce, and of the Interior; but the regularity of official life did not please him; his occupation and amusements did not allow him to write. For four years, he produced no new work. When M. d'Argout left the Cabinet, he appointed Mérimée Inspector General of the French historical monuments. This post suited him exactly. It left him complete freedom, and gave him opportunities for travelling all

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

over France; and it brought him in relations with very learned and studious people. During his long inspections he was constantly in correspondence with his friends, and we owe to this period two classes of valuable documents: first, his official reports on our historical monuments, and, secondly, his amusing and interesting letters to various correspondents.

Mérimée was a born artist; he had already learned much at his father's house, in the ateliers of his friends; he knew how to draw and to paint; he studied architecture in all its manifestations. He became a jealous and almost pious guardian of our fine monuments. Mérimée was one of the founders of the Historical Monuments Commission, which has rendered and is still rendering such valuable service. He may be said to have saved, with Montalembert, the magnificent and curious church of Vézelay. He wrote the history of the Church of Saint-Savin. The amphitheatres of Orange and of Arles, the church of Saint-Martin at Tours, the cathedral of Laon, owe much to his perseverance. He was the laziest of men in ordinary life; but when there was a question of one of the historical monuments which he wished to keep in good preservation, he became indefatigable. Those who are old enough to remember the years which followed 1830, will agree with the critic who said: "If Victor Hugo had not written 'Notre Dame de Paris,' and if Mérimée had not prompted the formation of the Historical Monuments Commission, all our old edifices would have been pulled down for the building only of Madeleines and of Bourses."

His archæological studies did not interfere with his literary work. He wrote in 1837 the 'Vénus d'Ille,' inspired by a Latin chronicle of the tenth century; a curious and enigmatic story, in which there is a supernatural element. In 1840, he made a journey to Corsica; and his notes furnished him admirable touches for 'Colomba,' which must be considered as his master-work, and will be read as long as the 'Chronique du Temps de Charles IX.' 'Colomba' is the personification of the spirit of the vendetta, which is still found in all the islands of the Mediterranean, as well as in Italy, especially in southern Italy. Colomba is a tender virgin, in whose heart hatred has perforce taken the place of love, as hatred has appeared to her a duty. She lives for a fixed idea, for vengeance. Mérimée surrounded his subject with the most poetical details, the most original developments. In 'Colomba' he touches the height of tragedy. M. Filon says of this story that "its only defect is in having no defects." The style has a classic purity to which our time is no longer accustomed. Some pages of 'Colomba' have become a text for school examinations.

'Arsène Guillot' appeared in 1844 and 'Carmen' in 1845. 'Carmen' has been popularized by Bizet's opera. 'Arsène Guillot' might also furnish a musician with a libretto; it is very realistic, and some parts remind one of the 'Dame aux Camélias.' 'Carmen' was Mérimée's adieu to the novel-reading public. He afterwards gave himself up completely to archæological and historical studies. His last works of imagination, published twenty years after 'Carmen,' deserve but little attention. The reader will find in M. Filon's volume an account of Mérimée in his official life. He was made a Senator by the influence of the Empress Eugénie, who was his friend. He died shortly after the fall of the Empire, at Cannes, on the 13th of September, 1870.

Correspondence.

THE ORIGINAL POOLE'S INDEX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you kindly allow me a little of your valuable space for a reply to Mr. Holbrook's communication in the *Nation* of July 7, p. 12? The main fact stated in the *Bookman* is strictly true; as can easily be shown.

In 1845-'46 I was the assistant in the library of the Society of Brothers in Unity in Yale College. In the year following, being a senior in the college, I was the librarian. In 1847-'48 Mr. Poole was the assistant, and in the next year he was the librarian.

While in the library, it was a part of my duty to look up references for students in preparation for theses and debates. As the same topics were frequently up, I was led to preserve such references, and, after a time, I had accumulated a considerable amount of this matter. In order to make it more useful and to save my time, I decided to put it in print. Accordingly, in January, 1847, the work appeared, with the title, 'Subjects for Debate, with References to Authorities. The Nos. refer to the vols. in the Brothers' Library.' It was a pamphlet of eight double-column pages, and contained sixty-three subjects, with from two to thirty specific references under each subject. The pamphlet was eagerly sought for by the students, and the edition was soon exhausted.

When Mr. Poole came into the library, recognizing the value of the work, he began the preparation of a new edition. As the work grew upon his hands, he changed his plan, and decided to make an index to the collection of periodicals belonging to the Brothers' Library. This work was published in 1848, with the title, 'Index to Subjects Treated in . . . Periodicals . . . . Prepared for the Library of the Brothers in Unity, Yale College.' There can be no question that my little eight-page pamphlet was the germ of the Index of 1848, which has since grown into the present four-volume 'Poole's Index.'

At the meeting of the American Library Association in San Francisco in 1891, Mr. Joseph C. Rowell exhibited a copy of this pamphlet, and called it a "prehistoric Poole," naming me as its author.* Mr. Poole, in a letter to Mr. Rowell, disclaims the authorship of the pamphlet, and attributes it to me.

Against what has now been said in reply to Mr. Holbrook there is no scintilla of positive evidence. The long quotation from the preface to the Index of 1882 has no relevance to the main issue.

Very respectfully, John Edmands.

Mercantile Library,
Baltimore, July 22, 1898.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have in press 'Socialism and the Social Movement in the 19th Century,' from the German of Werner Sombart; 'The Groundwork of Science,' by St. George Mivart; 'Methods and Principles of Literary Criticism,' by Prof. Lorenzo Sears of Brown University; and 'Studies of a Biographer,' by Leslie Stephen.

Dr. Hutchison Stirling is to be congratulated on having lived to republish his 'Secret of Hegel' (Putnams), which made its original appearance in 1865, and now, after the lapse of a generation, may fairly claim to have become a philosophical classic. The original edition, in two volumes, contained over 1,100 pages of "reading matter"; the present has, in consequence of an enlarged page and smaller print, been compressed into something over 800. But the resulting volume is uncomfortably bulky, and adds physical to the intellectual difficulties of enucleating the "secret." Hence it is hardly likely to convert the facetious persons who decided long ago that whatever "the secret of Hegel" might be, Dr. Stirling had succeeded admirably in keeping it in the course of his prolonged discussion "about it and about." And yet it was proclaimed aloud in the preface that the secret lay in the discovery of the "concrete universal." Perhaps the scoffers thought that this explained *ignotum per ignotius*, and even serious opponents of Hegelian philosophy might be found to argue that a concrete universal was a contradiction in terms, that the demand for it proceeded from a misapprehension, and that the only thing that was or could be concrete was the reality to which the "universal" was asserted to apply. But however this may be, Dr. Stirling is evidently still as much in earnest about his solution as ever, and has only added a few notes that do not substantially affect the argument. And with his earnestness and vigor he well deserves to impress his readers, if only they can stomach the quaintness of a style replete with Germanisms and redolent of Carlylese.

The third edition of Prof. J. Seth's 'Study of Ethical Principles' (Scribners) has been improved by the rewriting of the chapter on the method of ethics, by the addition of a new chapter on moral progress, and by the insertion of bibliographical references and an index. It seems a pity that the occasion was not utilized also to effect a curtailment of the excessive tendency to sermonize which forms so marked a feature of the book. The space so economized might have been advantageously devoted to giving a less dogmatic air to another of its characteristics, viz., its abundance of metaphysical statements which are left unsupported by argument. As matters stand, it is surely unfortunate that so many turning-points of Prof. Seth's "ethics of personality" exhibit only what Aristotle would have called the "unproved assertions of a good man," and even a text-book should aim at producing conviction rather than persuasion. But, after all, these are matters of taste, and the author is probably of opinion that they form attractions rather than defects; and he evidently knows his public.

The fifty-fifth volume of Sidney Lee's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) passes the boundary between S and T. The prolific Stuarts, Talbots, Taylers, and Taylors insure the filling, but this section is comparatively deficient in great or interesting characters. Dean Swift is easily the first in this class, and is exhibited in twenty-three pages by Leslie Stephen, who does not here, as sometimes, confine himself to succinct narration, but essays a summing up. The general tone of this sketch is favorable to the Dean. The notice of J. A. Symonds is to be commended for impartiality, and

Library Journal, vol. xvi., p. 313.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the Baroness Tautphoeus is also discriminatingly treated. An Englishman who, along with Daguerre, has conferred an immeasurable benefit on mankind, William Henry Fox Talbot, "Pioneer of photography," is shown to have been, besides, a mathematician of no mean powers; and "he was, with Sir Henry Rawlinson and Dr. Hincks, one of the first to decipher the cuneiform inscriptions brought from Nineveh." In other ways, too, his versatility was remarkable. Another and a greater mathematical genius, J. J. Sylvester, is commemorated in the same volume, where, having American associations, are to be found, further, Gilbert Stuart the painter, Cardinal Taschereau, General Tarleton of Revolutionary fame, and William Strachey, the Virginian colonist and author, who is reputed to have given to Shakspere the hint of the "still-vex'd Bermoothes."

Mrs. Ritchie's introduction to the latest volume in the Biographical Thackeray—'Barry Lyndon, the Fitz-Boodle Papers, etc.' (Harpers)—would serve, as she frankly confesses, for other books of that time, so far as showing the difficulties under which they were written. As bearing directly on 'Barry,' there is little except some extracts from Thackeray's diary and letters to show how painstakingly he read up his period, and with what labor and depression he wrote that vivacious tale. A characteristic letter from Edward FitzGerald is given, and the usual number of unpublished Thackeray sketches—the most striking one being a youthful rendering of "The Battle of Jena," which is as purposely amusing as some of our contemporary war pictures are unintentionally.

A contribution to American history that has a curious timeliness is made by Isaac Sharpless, President of Haverford College, in 'A Quaker Experiment in Government' (Philadelphia: Alfred J. Ferris). The author's aim has been to narrate the early history of Pennsylvania as it presented itself to the Quakers of the time, and his chief sources of information have been the contemporary Meeting Records and private letters. To these must be added "a fairly intimate personal acquaintance with many who probably represent in this generation, in their mental and moral characteristics, the 'Quaker Governing Class' of the first century of the province." A commonwealth founded on the principles of political equality, religious liberty, just dealing with the Indians, the settlement of disputes by conciliation, and the absence of all military and naval provision for attack and defence, may seem an "iridescent dream" in these times of militarism; but it came nearer realization in Pennsylvania than is commonly supposed, according to the evidence here presented, and we heartily concur with the author in the hope and belief that some time these principles will again be recognized as the basis of government.

The latest attempt at the popularization of science in France is one which is likely to provoke observation if not keen interest. "Livres d'or de la Science" is the general title of the series of volumes, the issue of which is now just begun under the direction of M. Albert Lacroix. The publisher, in a somewhat curious prospectus, sets forth the aim of the new venture. According to him, the face of Science has hitherto repelled many by its severity, and what plain people need now, in order to initiate themselves in her mysteries, is books that render Science clear, "aimable même, et, si nous osons le dire, attirante et souriante pour tous." The savants, in their special treatises and technical manuals, have not put themselves within reach of the understanding of most readers: either their books are too much spun out into details, and so address only students and specialists, or else they are condensed to the point of aridity, and weary the reader's mind. The new series will change all that. Two volumes have already appeared—a "très remarquable" sketch of universal history, "Le Panorama des Siècles," by M. J. Weber, and a study by M. Edmond Plauchut, on "Les Races Jaunes." The collection will be extended at once so as to include the whole field of human knowledge, and will be published regularly at the rate of two volumes a month, setting out from the coming autumn.

'Gross New York' is, at first sight, a somewhat railing title, but on examination it turns out to be only a study of Greater New York by a Berlin magistrate-assessor, Dr. G. Herzfeld. He begs a friendly reception for his little book, "bei Theoretikern wie Praktikern" (which we suppose is good German for High-toners and Boys), and hopes that anyhow his map will please. Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, is the publisher.

In Consular Reports for July, considerable space is devoted to condensed accounts of Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippine Islands, with especial reference to their commerce and resources. China comes next in importance, with reports upon the opening of treaty ports and inland water routes, the production of cotton, the demand for steel rails, the increased American trade, and fireworks. Of these nearly twenty-seven million pounds were exported last year, mostly to New York, and yet this was but "a small fraction of the amount manufactured and used in China." It is estimated that "30 women and 10 men can make 100,000 crackers per day; for which work the women will receive 5 cents each, and the men about 7 cents each." The hours of labor, it may be added, "are from 6 A. M. to 11 P. M., and there are seven working days in each week."

The Chicago *Chap-Book* has been merged in the *Dial* of the same city. It will be missed for its ever handsome typographical appearance, and it has done what could be done to extend the field of magazine writing in a fortnightly periodical issue. Its non-success after four years of laudable effort, marked by much cleverness and not a little independence, seems to disprove the need of such a medium. Its resort to illustrations was, to the experienced, a sign of distress now avowed. In this field the competition was more obvious if not more serious than in others. We shall be glad if the *Dial* is strengthened by the absorption.

The vacancy in the board of managers of the Observatory of Yale University, occasioned by the death of Prof. Newton, has been filled by the election of Dr. Elkin, the present director of the Observatory, who reports much progress in observations with the heliometer by Dr. Chase and himself for the purpose of detecting stars in proximity to the solar system, as surmised from the fact of their large apparent or proper motion. More than 100 such stars are to be investigated in all. For many years astronomers have suspected a possibility of systematic error in stellar distances, due to lesser refrangibility of the light of highly colored red stars, and Dr. Elkin has in progress a series of measures for testing this important question. But these researches have not precluded his use of the newly devised multiple instrument for photographing meteors, which has been employed at every available period of meteoric displays of consequence. Many trails have thus been secured; and in view of the approaching maximum shower of Leonids, due in November, 1899, the National Academy of Sciences has made a grant of $1,000 from the J. Lawrence Smith Fund, for the purpose of securing, if possible, records at an auxiliary station sufficiently remote from New Haven for determining critically the paths of the brighter meteors in space.

"New Observations of the Planet Mercury" is the title of a paper by Percival Lowell in the Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences of Boston (vol. xxii., part 4). Mr. Lowell's conclusions are that Mercury is somewhat larger than has been supposed, being probably about 3,300 miles in diameter, and that it rotates only once during its orbital period of nearly eighty-eight days. The observations of the physical features of the planet's surface reveal distinct and permanent "markings" which are unlike those on any other planet. They are linear, but not of uniform width, some of them stretching from pole to pole, others running across the disk corresponding to parallels of latitude. They are very dark, especially at points of intersection, where they expand into spots. Although symmetrically placed they do not, like the "canals" of Mars, "suggest artificiality." The existence of these markings is accounted for upon the supposition that, as the greater part of one hemisphere is continuously hidden from the sun, the process of cooling would be unequal, and that the greater contraction of one side would cause cracks to appear in the other. Mercury shows no signs of atmosphere, water, vegetation, or organic life, and is believed to be "a world as dead as the moon." A series of lithographic plates illustrate this memoir.

Sir Joseph Hooker contributes to the Proceedings of the Royal Society of London for June 18 a biographical sketch of the late Baron Ferdinand von Mueller, one of the most eminent scientists of the southern hemisphere. Born in 1825, he emigrated in 1847 to Australia, where, fascinated by the interest and novelty of the flora, he devoted himself to scientific study and exploration. For sixteen years he was Director of the Melbourne Botanic Gardens, and was retained as Government Botanist until his death. His principal labors may be classed under the heads of scientific botany and economic botany. A voluminous writer, his most notable works are 'Fragmenta Phytographiæ Australiæ,' in twelve volumes; 'Eucalyptographia,' with 129 plates, and 'The Acaceæ and their Allies,' with 130 plates. His most important work in economic botany is 'Select Extra-Tropical Plants, suitable for industrial culture or naturalization in Australia.' To his zeal in the distribution of seeds, South America and California are indebted for the eucalypti, acacias, and other trees which adorn their hills and plains and have even improved their climate. Personally, Baron von Mueller had some striking peculiarities. He dressed in black, wore wooden shoes, and boasted of never having owned a watch or a looking-glass. In the same number is an important paper in three parts, "On the Intimate Struc-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ture of Crystals," by W. J. Sollas, Professor of Geology at Oxford.

It seems not wholly just to speak of the French centenaries just past, or soon to come, and leave quite without mention the fête of Chateaubriand, which was celebrated in Paris on July 4—the fiftieth anniversary of his death. There was a pilgrimage to the hôtel in the Rue du Bac, with an address by M. Melchoir de Vogüé; a visit to the hermitage of the Vallée-aux-Loups, and in the evening a dinner, at which M. Sully Prudhomme spoke; but no widespread interest was shown. The fame, once great, of the author and statesman has been dwindling through the forty years that have elapsed since Villemain's book appeared, and now seems to be confined to the Academy and to a few among the *jeunes*. He is, in fact, no longer read. On this point the *Revue Bleue* of July 2 cites a bookseller, who said: "There are certain voluminous works, in the book-trade, that are never out of demand: for example, the 'Lundis' of Saint-Beuve, which have a steady sale, and which you will never pick up as a bargain at a book-stall. There are others for which there is no demand any longer, and Chateaubriand is one of these. The old editions have never been reprinted; nobody would venture to undertake it. The farthest any one goes is to run the risk, now and then, of reprinting the best-known parts of them. I myself published an 'Atala' some years ago, and I have not yet sold out the first thousand."

—The Yukon basin is the subject of an illustrated paper in the July *Geographical Journal*, by Mr. W. Ogilvie of the Topographical Survey of Canada. In his description of the geological features, he says that there are more than 3,200 miles of fair navigation in the system of the Yukon River, of which Canada owns nearly 42 per cent. The drainage area occupies about 338,000 square miles, 149,000 of which belong to Canada. The gold-bearing region he believes to comprise upwards of 125,000 square miles; but of the 3,000 linear miles of river, stream, and gulch which are auriferous "only about 200 were fully tested and developed up to August last, and at present date probably not more than 400 have been fairly well tested." Among other minerals are "very superior" lignite coal, silver, and copper, of which last the Indians bring in "quite large specimens," from some locality as yet unknown. The correct name for the Klondike is Troandik, which means Hammer Creek, from the fact that the Indians used to erect barriers across the mouth to catch salmon by hammering sticks into the ground. Among the other contents of the number are Sir C. Markham's address at the commemoration of Vasco da Gama's voyage to India, and an account of a journey in southern Arabia by Mrs. J. T. Bent. There is also a description, with plans, of a "telegraphic instrument" used by the Catuquinarús, a tribe on a tributary of the upper Amazon. It is apparently a cylinder, with a hollow chamber, of wood, rubber, and hide, partly buried in a pit lined with fragments of wood, hide, and resins. These "cambarysús" are hidden in *malocœs* (habitations) a mile apart, and, when struck with a club of wood lined with rubber and hide, "the neighboring ones to the north and south, if not above a mile distant, respond to or echo the blow. To this an Indian answers by striking the instrument in the *malocœ* with which it is desired to communicate, which blow in turn is echoed by the instrument originally struck. Each *malocca* has its own series of signals. So enclosed is each instrument in the *malocca* that, when standing outside and near the building, it is difficult to hear a blow, which, nevertheless, is heard distinctly in the next *malocca*, a mile distant, in the manner indicated. "The Tuchau," continues Dr. Bach, "gave me an example of signalling. With a prolonged interval, he struck the instrument twice with the club, which, as I understood, was to indicate attention, or that a conference was desired. This was responded to by the same instrument, as a result of a single blow given by some one on the next apparatus, nearly a mile distant. Then commenced a long conversation, which I could not comprehend." The suggestion has been made that "there is in the locality some stratum of earth or rock of such composition that it easily transmits the vibrations of the blow given upon one of the instruments, which, being enclosed and nearly buried in the earth, certainly does not transmit the sound through the air."

—Prof. W. H. Pickering publishes, in the forty-first volume of the Annals of Harvard College Observatory, a brief paper on the meteoric shower of November 13, 1897, accompanied with a photographic map of the heavens central about the radiant of the Leonids, which is almost exactly in the middle of the familiar "Sickle" in Leo. This map has been prepared with great care for the use of future observers, and covers a larger area of the sky than any map heretofore published that has been prepared directly by photographic means. The meteoric observations were undertaken both at Cambridge and at Mr. Rotch's meteorological observatory on the summit of Blue Hill; and programmes of visual and photographic procedure were carried out at both stations, with the assistance of Messrs. Wendell, Reed, and King, and a number of college volunteers. The weather on the night in question was in general favorable, although very cold and windy, especially at Blue Hill, where the average velocity of the wind was thirty miles per hour. The presence of the moon, too, was a slight interference with the visual, though greater with the photographic, observations. Nearly a hundred meteors were seen at Cambridge, and about half that number at Blue Hill, exhibiting, as usual, a rapid increase to a maximum in the latter part of the night. But the difficulties of successful coöperation are shown by the fact that in only two cases was the path of the same meteor caught at both stations. Both disappeared at a height of about 45 miles above the earth's surface, the white one at a distance of about 75 miles from Cambridge, and the red one at nearly 200; and Prof. Pickering concludes that there are actual differences in chemical constitution of the individual meteors composing the swarm. The results of his careful estimation of size are that the larger Leonids seen upon this occasion would weigh several hundred pounds, and be quite analogous in size to the larger meteoric masses which, owing to their slower motion, succeed in reaching the surface of the earth intact. On account of their high velocity, no Leonid has ever been known to penetrate to the earth's surface, the friction and resistance of the air being sufficient to completely disintegrate them; but this atmospheric protection does not defend us equally against the slower-moving Andromeds. As is well known, during the shower from the radiant in Andromeda, on November 27, 1885, an iron meteorite weighing over eight pounds fell, and was picked up at Mazapil, Mexico. The Harvard observers are to continue these observations during the next two years on suitable occasions, particularly with improved photographic methods.

—The quarrel between the humanists and the scientists, which is a modern phase of the secular war between the adherents of old and new learning, is by no means extinct. There is still fire in the embers that lie hid under the innocent-looking ashes, as M. Jules Lemaître has found out since the 1st of June, when he blew them into sudden flame by an address which he delivered at the Sorbonne. Perhaps the fact that it is the new Sorbonne, and not the old, may be the reason why the walls of the building did not crumble and bring the roof down on his irreverent head, for he maintained, quietly and with no exterior signs of madness, the thesis that classical teaching in France is detestable, and that the whole Greek and Latin programme ought to be suppressed. M. Jules Lemaître is himself a Normalian and a Doctor in Letters, and has the credit of being something of a scholar and of having profited by his classical training. This, however, he made haste to deny. What he said was in substance this: You believe that I have reaped profit from my classical studies. Look at the result: it is lamentable. I know no English at all, and I know German very ill. That is not my fault; instead of teaching me these living tongues, they took my whole time for the study of dead ones. And these dead languages—do you innocently suppose that I remember them? Not in the least. I no longer know a word of Greek. As to Latin, I never read it; the "Conciones" bores me, and I like Béranger better than I do Horace. They did not even develop my muscles by a good course of gymnastics, and my bodily members are awkward. I am good for nothing [at this point in his report M. André Beaunier interjects: "Oh! le pauvre, le pauvre!"] —I am good for nothing except to write, and even this I do not owe to my Latin. Of course the cudgels were at once taken up on the other side by M. Francisque Vial in the *Revue Bleue*, by M. Emanuel des Essarts in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement*, and by others, none of whom, so far as we have seen, has much that is new to say. The whole question lacks interest, possibly because nobody expects that it ever will be settled by argument. In fifty years' time perhaps it may have drifted to its end. What is most interesting in the present incident is the likeness between the address of M. Jules Lemaître and the one by which Mr. Charles Francis Adams fluttered the dovecotes of Cambridge a few years ago.

—In the interest of students of French, attention may be called to the very recent appearance of a standard German work in a new and attractive garb, for which we are indebted to a young Russian scholar in Romance languages, viz., A. Haase's 'Syntaxe Française du XVIIe Siècle, traduite par M. Obert avec l'autorisation de l'auteur' (Paris: Alphonse Picard et Fils), a volume of nearly 500 pages. This translation, although faithful so far as concerns the subject-matter, has necessarily undergone a few slight changes in the form in order to make it appeal to French readers. Hence, a some-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

what different exposition from that of the German work has been resorted to: the various cases *a*, *b*, *c*, under each rule have been paragraphed, each being followed by its respective examples, the whole displayed with contrasting type which brings the subject more clearly and immediately before the mind. Footnotes are appended, some for the purpose of showing where peculiar usages survive in the language of the present day, these being but casually hinted at in the original; others being quotations from Old French to elucidate usages now archaic; others, again, presenting remarks by the gifted and painstaking translator concerning the wording and purport of certain grammatical theories. Full and corrected reference to other works, both classic and vulgar, is a marked advance over Haase's own edition. The folk-speech examples are drawn from Henri Monnier's 'Scènes Populaires.' The American student will be gratified by the typographical beauty and completeness of the French edition, with full reference to chapter, page, author, and edition. Forty-three sources have been carefully consulted to this end, some of which are works not available to the ordinary reader and bear early dates. M. Petit de Julleville, under whose considerate and learned guidance the translation was undertaken, says, in his preface to it: "La traduction française est élégante et claire; le texte des exemples a été soigneusement vérifié; toutes les références indiquées avec exactitude." The editor acknowledges valuable aid from MM. L. Crouslé and E. Boutroux, professors of the University of Paris, in the interpretation of texts quoted, as well as from M. Brunetière in general criticism.

—American architects and others in Italy, writes a correspondent from that country, will be interested in knowing that in the Exhibition now open at Turin there is a large and splendid collection of architectural casts—capitals, doorways, bas-reliefs, etc., mostly mediæval—from the province of Bari; revealing such a richness and beauty in the ancient art of Apulia as must astonish nearly all who see the exhibit. The casts were made at a cost of 100,000 lire, and, as the moulds were not preserved, this collection must remain absolutely unique. It is to be hoped that it will be permanently housed at Turin. The Exhibition has other claims to attention, especially from artists and archæologists. A large division appropriated to Sacred Art has a retrospective show of paintings, sculptures, and objects of ecclesiastical art of all sorts, gathered from churches, sacristies, and private collections. Among these treasures is a superb crucifix, the Christ in ivory and the cross in silver, a chef-d'œuvre of Renaissance art, once presented by a Pope to a member of his own family, and preserved by his descendants to this day. The present representative would be glad to sell it, and it were much to be desired that so splendid a work should be acquired for America. There is also in this division a collection of photographs of mediæval churches in Piedmont, general views and details, complete beyond anything to be seen elsewhere. The study of these is but a temporary privilege, as they are the work of a distinguished amateur, and not for sale nor even often to be seen. Some of the Exhibition buildings, in the rococo style peculiar to Turin, are well worth attention. The entrance-pavilion, with its fountain, its setting of park, and its background of richly wooded hills beyond the Po, forms a picture of rare beauty.

LANG'S MAKING OF RELIGION.

The Making of Religion. By Andrew Lang, M.A., LL.D. Longmans, Green & Co. 1898.

To say of so versatile a writer as Mr. Lang that he is nothing if not controversial, would be inexcusable. Nevertheless, his predilection for controversy is as pronounced as his talent for it is unmistakable. It is only a few months since his 'Modern Mythology' was reviewed in our columns, a volume devoted exclusively to the demolition of Prof. Max Müller's conception of mythology as "a disease of language." More recently he has trained his guns on Mr. Grant Allen's 'Evolution of the Idea of God' and made a wreck of that pretentious pile. Contending with Müller, he seemed almost persuaded to be an anthropologist, but when he came to deal with Mr. Grant Allen, it was evident that he wore his anthropology with an important difference from him and Spencer and even Tylor, for whom his respect is much greater than for the others. He can hardly mention Tylor without praise or differ from him without apology. His own theories, which were barely hinted at in his review of Mr. Grant Allen, are here fully expounded, and, strangely enough, they bring him into congenial relations with Müller. Not that Mr. Lang has repented him of his distaste for Müller's system of mythology, but that he has arrived at a doctrine of primitive theism which is very sympathetic with that veteran's Henotheism—the doctrine of one God called by many names.

After a brief introduction, in which the general purpose of the book is set forth, we have an "Historical Sketch" of "Science and 'Miracles.'" The title is an imposing one for matter of such narrow range and slight consistency. The chapter amounts to little more than a disclosure of the attitude of several prominent philosophers towards clairvoyance and similar phenomena. Hume is roundly abused, as if his treatment of such phenomena as miracles, and his refusing to consider them, made his general argument against miracles illogical and absurd. A more careful rendering of the case of science and miracles, with less ulterior aim, would have reported that the position of Arnold and Huxley is now the general one among those who have the scientific mind. This position was anticipated by Theodore Parker, viz., that, antecedent to experience, one thing is as possible as another, but that, the more stable the experience on any line, the more evidence must we demand for an infringement of the habitual order. Meantime, the established fact simply demands a wider generalization, a more inclusive law. The evidence which is convincing of the abnormal fact is convincing that it is not a miracle in the theological sense. Mr. Lang's "Miracles" in quotation marks are not the regular theological miracles at all, and those simple-minded supernaturalists who will imagine he has become as one of them will reckon without their host. Even if he has succeeded in relegating the beginnings of religion to the region of the abnormal and occult, he has not assured it any supernatural standing. He makes no concealment here. But, falling short of the true theological miracle—a violation of natural law—a *quasi*-miracle of clairvoyance or something similar will awaken the sentiment described as "grateful thanks" by President McKinley in his acknowledgment of things done at Santiago.

The remaining chapters of Mr. Lang's book fall into two distinct parts quite independent of each other, as he himself conceives. In the first part, beginning with the third and ending with the eighth chapter, he is mainly concerned with the exhibition of certain phenomena of clairvoyance (which the Zulus very prettily call "opening the gates of distance"), "crystal visions," hallucinations, possession, fetishism, and so on. He would first catch his hare, *i. e.*, secure his facts, by better evidence than the anthropologists generally require, confirming the reports of trustworthy witnesses of savage life by modern civilized examples. No trait is more characteristic of those whom the occult has captured in its snare than their protestation that they are not such fools as some others. Evidence to convince them must be overwhelming and without a flaw. This trait is as prominent in Mr. Lang's self-consciousness as Brougham's nose in *Punch's* caricatures of that Liberal statesman. And yet his scent for what is fallacious in his own argument is hardly less keen than his appreciation of what is defective in that of other people. He does not pretend that he escapes the bias of his theory. To us it seems that it permits him to content himself with inductions far too narrow for the superstructures he would rear on them, and with highly abstract interpretations of the savage mind, wherein we seem to find the glosses of the civilized reporter. Hegelian metaphysics in the lowest savagery finds Mr. Lang genially acquiescent, but such a phenomenon will give many of his readers pause.

Having assured himself of his phenomena, Mr. Lang applies them to the purpose which he has in hand—the confutation of the now generally accepted anthropological theory of the origin of religion from animistic notions of dreams, ghosts, ancestors, and fetishes. This theory infects religion at its root with unreality, and hence religion, it is generally argued, is unreal in branch and fruit. Mr. Lang admits that this argument is not logical, seeing that all our science is the result of refinements upon hypotheses originally erroneous. He might have gone further, and indicated that primitive religious notions were a primitive science. But the inference of the unreality of religion from the unreality of the early animistic notions is a very natural one, and Mr. Lang's endeavor to relieve religion of this pristine taint is highly creditable. Many, no doubt, will think his remedy worse than the disease. His remedy is to show that the early savages were not mistaken in their conception of the soul as wandering from its bodily tenement, or that they were only mistaken in their explanation of certain facts of their psychical experience. If it can be shown that they actually saw and knew things happening at a distance, then we may readily believe that their dream theories were backed up by actual experience. Then it will be much easier to understand their holding of such theories. From a wide range of observation Mr. Lang brings together a mass of data confirmatory of his opinion that the savage mind had frequent conversation with an order of experience which, until very recently, Science has brushed aside as unworthy of her august regard. He puts it very wittily in a pas-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

sage which is one of the many that enliven a grave discussion in a delightful manner: "Anthropology adopts the airs of her elder sisters among the sciences, and is as severe as they to the Cinderella of the family, psychical research. She must murmur of her fairies among the cinders of the hearth, while they go forth to the ball, and dance with provincial mayors at the festivities of the British Association."

It can hardly be denied that, when we have once established the facts for which Mr. Lang contends, they do make out for the early conceptions of religion a more real character than has belonged to them from the standpoint of Herbert Spencer and other "ghostly counsellors." Given clairvoyance, telepathy, and hallucination, and the savage had valid reasons for believing in the soul as something not to be cribbed, cabined, and confined within the bounds of sense. Mr. Lang is not the first anthropologist to believe that these phenomena were more characteristic of the life of early savages than of the modern man's. There have been psychologists who have regarded them as survivals of faculties more highly developed in the lower animals than in mankind. And while the gain in reality from Mr. Lang's argument is undeniable, it may be permitted us to question whether religion will gain much of ancestral pride through its derivation from an order of experience always abnormal, and much more so for the civilized man than for the savage. It would go hard with us if the reality of religion were commensurate with the range of such experience. The modern spiritualists would have the coign of vantage. Mr. Lang would not have it so, for he misses no opportunity to speak contemptuously of them, limiting their valid product to the vaticinations of Prof. William James's "one white crow," Mrs. Piper, a Boston medium. But the spiritualists have at least tried to reckon with those phenomena which are the bottom facts in Mr. Lang's making of religion, and many of their data would seem to be vouched for quite as seriously as his.

The second part of Mr. Lang's book has a distinct value of its own, while at the same time there are points of agreement and mutual support between it and the first. If it does not make good its contention, it calls a halt to many hasty generalizations which have the widest vogue. Some of Spencer's speculations are made to appear more thin and ghostly than the primeval ghosts on which he had relied so much; and much is done to relieve religion in general from that odor of the corpse with which Mr. Grant Allen has sought to infect it with his ingenious but too wilful lucubrations. The title of the first chapter of Mr. Lang's second part, "High Gods of Low Races," announces its most characteristic note. His contention is that some of the lowest races have gods of a high order; gods that are not ghosts because they existed before death; nor kings, because they are found in kingless tribes. The evidence is sufficient to give the student of these matters much food for reflection. It is at least convincing that we have been much too hasty in some of our conclusions, and that the beginnings of religion were much more complex than our vivacious theorists have commonly believed. God has fulfilled himself in many ways, lest one good theory should corrupt the intellectual modesty of such men as Mr. Grant Allen, or even Mr. Lang, who, in his turn, is much too confident that he has solved the riddle. What he has done is to develop a theory, which has had various anticipation. It may be found in Cudworth's 'Intellectual System of the Universe,' in Müller's Henotheism, in Renan's doctrine of an original monotheistic instinct, and, widely, in the notion of an original revelation, which only the Hebrew people preserved unspoiled. Mr. Lang argues that "the old degeneration theory" has much to favor it. The novelty of his conception lies very much in his persuasion that animism has been the corrupting influence. He finds certain representations of Jehovah in the Old Testament on a lower level than the Big Black Man of the Fuegians, to say nothing of the higher gods of other lowest races. But whereas Renan considers Jehovah an unworthy successor of the original El, Mr. Lang thinks Jehovah began upon the heights, but was corrupted by the ghost-worshippers. The earliest gods, he assures us, were not spirits, but great "non-natural men." And yet, for Christianity to exist, "animism in its purest form" must ally itself with the original Jehovah, who was corrupted by animism, and purified by Moses and the prophets.

How animism was purified we are not told, and concerning other matters we are left in blankest ignorance. Whence and how came the conception of the high gods to the lower races? Mr. Lang leaves the origin of religion wholly unexplained. His piety being of that kind which expresses itself by the use of capital letters when naming Christian mysteries, he probably believes in an original divine revelation to all peoples. But even if his instances of degeneration were all made good, it would not follow that the higher stage which was succeeded by a lower was the original stage. That there has been much degeneration there can be no doubt. Christianity has furnished its full share. But, before we can believe that humanity began its religious experience with the highest thoughts of God, we must learn to distrust the whole course of modern science. While frequently reminding himself that our lowest contemporary savages are not identical with the primitive races, Mr. Lang habitually writes as if they were. But, given high gods with low races, the problem would at once present itself, How came they there? This problem may for ever baffle our research, but, of all hypotheses, that of a great beginning gradually sicklied over with the pale cast of superstition is the most irrational. Nowhere does Mr. Lang's critical sagacity fall further short of his supreme self-confidence than in dealing with the Old Testament. He makes not the least allowance for that order of development which distinguished Hebraists have generally agreed upon, nor for that editing and reëditing of texts which makes hasty inference from isolated passages a criminal procedure. His conclusions here are often so hasty and ill-judged that "on other more important points we may differ from the newest scientific opinion without too much diffident apprehensiveness," as he has himself written.

BURNS AND MRS. DUNLOP.

Robert Burns and Mrs. Dunlop: Correspondence now published in full for the first time. With elucidations by William Wallace. Two volumes. Dodd, Mead & Co.

The publication of the correspondence between Burns and Mrs. Dunlop in its entirety is a literary event of some moment. By far the greater part of the material is new. Of Burns's letters to Mrs. Dunlop, thirty-nine were printed by Currie in 1800, and four others have since seen the light. The present edition reproduces all of these and adds thirty-eight new letters and parts of letters from Burns, along with ninety-seven (all unpublished) from Mrs. Dunlop. In all, but thirteen letters appear to be missing, four of the poet's and nine of the lady's. The new matter is derived from the Lochryan MSS., recently disposed of by Col. J. F. Wallace, Mrs. Dunlop's great-grandson, and now in the possession of Mr. R. B. Adam of Buffalo. Mr. Adam's liberality in making public the riches of his collection of autographs has already been celebrated by Dr. George Birkbeck Hill, to whom he freely communicated his Johnsonian treasures, and deserves to be publicly recognized on all becoming occasions.

A few of the letters already published by Currie are preserved among the Lochryan MSS., and a comparison with Currie's text justifies, we regret to say, the suspicion long entertained as to his editorial methods. Fortunately, the task of arranging and elucidating the complete correspondence has now been intrusted to a scholar of quite a different stamp. Mr. William Wallace is well known to our readers as the editor of the standard text of Burns (the revised Chambers), and as the foremost living authority on all that pertains to the life and works of the poet. He has performed his task with great skill. He is wonderfully accurate, habitually concise, and never irrelevant. His business, as he very rightly conceives it, is to make an important body of manuscript evidence accessible and intelligible, and he goes about it in a refreshingly modest and impersonal fashion. He has no theories to establish and no paradoxes to defend, and he is not at all concerned about *himself*. In a word, he has the two supreme qualities of a good guide: he knows the way and he is unobtrusive.

The friendship between Burns and Mrs. Dunlop began in 1786 and lasted until some eighteen months before the poet's death in 1796, when, for some unexplained reason, the lady's letters ceased. Her last letter, dated Jan. 12, 1795, closed with a request to the poet to write to her at her temporary London address. Three later letters from Burns are extant, the last, which is infinitely pathetic, written less than a fortnight before his death to bid her farewell. Even Mr. Wallace can find no satisfactory cause for this "desertion," as Mr. Scott-Douglas calls it, and is inclined to ascribe it to mere inadvertence. An interesting letter from Gilbert Burns to Mrs. Dunlop,* dated April 2, 1797, is conceived in terms which show that he still regarded the lady as a kind and sympathizing friend. Apart from this unsolved mystery, the impression left on the mind by a study—now first made possible—of the ten years' correspondence increases one's confidence in human nature. A more wholesome, honorable, and disinterested friendship it would be hard to find in the annals of literature.

The correspondence began with a letter from Mrs. Dunlop in 1786. A copy of Burns's first volume of poems (the Kilmarnock edition) was given to her by a friend when she was deeply depressed by the death of her

*Contained in the Lochryan collection and printed in an appendix to volume ii.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

husband and by her own severe illness. It proved to be precisely the mental restorative which she needed. She at once sent Burns an order for half-a-dozen copies of the volume, expressing the warmest appreciation of his talents. This was shortly before the poet's visit to Edinburgh, and at a time when he was keenly alive to recognition from his social superiors. Mrs. Dunlop was a member of the Ayrshire aristocracy and known to be a person of taste and feeling. The poet replied in the celebrated letter in which he describes his youthful visit to the Leglen Wood, and the correspondence was fairly launched.

Mrs. Dunlop was fifty-six years old and the mother of many grown-up children, to whom she devoted herself with complete self-abnegation. So far as age went, Burns might have been her son, and, living as she did in retirement and regarding herself as an old woman, her feelings toward him were a singular, but quite comprehensible, compound of literary worship and motherly concern. Henceforth her intercourse with him was the chief intellectual interest of her naturally active mind. It was her greatest delight to receive from him rough drafts of his poems, and to submit her own verse scribblings to his lenient criticism. She felt beyond measure honored by his confidences, and by the sympathetic interest which he took in her own family affairs, concerning which she often wrote to him at inordinate length, though with perfect tact and good taste. On the other hand, she was constantly on the alert for anything that could advance his fortunes, and she never tired of using her influence in his interest. An uncompromising moralist and a stern judge of the proprieties, she took a due advantage of her age and social position to expostulate with him on his riotous living and the "indelicacy" of some of his verses. In the latter regard she is now and then delightfully absurd; in the former she is uniformly strong, wise and kind. Burns's famous declaration, shortly after his marriage with Jean Armour, that "to jealousy or infidelity he is an equal stranger," has never been quite intelligible. It at once becomes clear when one reads the words of Mrs. Dunlop to which it was a direct reply. Nothing gives a better picture of this fine old Scotch gentlewoman's character than her letter on this occasion. It is searchingly sagacious, full of good sense and deep feeling, and splendidly plain-spoken. Her warnings and the spirit in which Burns took them are alike creditable to both parties. Here, as very often in these volumes, the necessity of knowing both sides of a correspondence comes out plainly, completely justifying Mr. Wallace's procedure in printing Mrs. Dunlop's letters at full length, interminable as they sometimes seem.

As a critic of literature Mrs. Dunlop appears to less advantage than as a critic of morals and domestic economy:

> "I would be happy," she writes, "to know you were engaged in some more extensive work than any you have yet attempted. . . . Detached pieces, however remarkable, leave on the mind only a passing impression, . . . whereas an epic work, as being considered the utmost height of human excellency, is never to be forgotten by the latest ages, but will add lustre to Ayrshire, and glorify her bard to the end of time if he succeed. If he fail, he fails where numbers have fallen before him; the attempt brings no disgrace, but yields great pleasure and amusement, and may, even should it not fill all the writer's ideas, be productive of very considerable profit to the author, to the bookseller, and to the readers."

This is undeniably funny, but not more so than her attempts to correct Burns's English or to revise a line in "The Twa Dogs" in the interest of the conventionalities. The poet's inflexibility in such matters sometimes offended her, but in one instance she was immensely gratified by his modifying, after some years, a line in which he had spoken of her kinsman, the patriot Wallace, as "unhappy."

On Burns's part, the correspondence is creditable throughout to his head and his heart. His letters are, as was to be expected, not infrequently conventional; but they are dignified and self-respecting, they express genuine sympathy with the troubles and afflictions of which Mrs. Dunlop had more than her share, and they show that he attached a proper value to her wise and discriminating friendship.

Besides the interest of the Burns-Dunlop correspondence in itself and as a partial history of Burns's emotional and mental life, the volumes before us afford not a few facts for his biography. We learn, for example, that he had seriously thought of purchasing a commission in the army with the profits of the Edinburgh volume. More interesting still and quite new: it appears that there was a movement, initiated by Mrs. Dunlop, to secure for him the newly established (1787) agricultural professorship in the University of Edinburgh. Minuter details of his career are also brought out in considerable numbers, especially with reference to his employment in the excise. The Lochryan MSS. are also of great value in determining the textual history of many of the poems, and settle one or two points of bibliography.

A portrait of Burns, a striking portrait of Mrs. Dunlop at the age of seventeen, and a number of facsimiles enhance the value of these very satisfactory volumes.

Memoirs of a Rear Admiral. By Samuel R. Franklin, Rear Admiral United States Navy (retired). Harper & Bros. 1898.

This is an interesting book, pleasantly written, by a well-known and genial officer of the navy, and covering a period in the service of the United States of nearly sixty years on the active and retired lists. Admiral Franklin entered the navy in 1841, a year in which so many original appointments were made that there had to be a suspension of entries for several years afterwards. This was due to the fact that there were three Secretaries of the Navy that year, each one making a year's appointment of midshipmen, and thus congesting the lower grades of the service. The early ancestors of Admiral Franklin were residents of New York city during the days of the Revolution, and not the least interesting pages of this memoir will be found in the chapters and letters devoted to that early period. Thomas Franklin, a great-granduncle of the author, built and occupied a house on Franklin Square in New York, the square itself deriving its name from this Franklin, whose gardens were originally upon this site, and whose house was placed at the disposal of Washington in one of his official visits. From this square the Admiral's book is appropriately issued. The Admiral's elder brother is Gen. William B. Franklin, whose career during the civil war is well known. Concerning this the Admiral quotes a statement made to him by Gen. Slocum, that on a visit to Washington, during the war, he had a conversation with Mr. Lincoln about the condition of affairs in the Army of the Potomac, saying that it was the feeling of many of the officers of that army that Gen. Franklin was the proper man to command it. The President, according to Slocum, promptly replied to the effect that he realized that fact, but that he did not dare to order him to that command. It was supposed that Stanton's enmity and Franklin's party affiliations were the obstacles in Mr. Lincoln's way to this appointment.

The first cruise made by the Admiral after his appointment was as a midshipman on board of the frigate *United States* in the Pacific. This cruise (or at least portions of it) was made famous afterwards by Herman Melville in his 'White Jacket,' many of the characters being well-known men in the service. The story of 'White Jacket' did very much to cause the abolition of flogging in the navy, every member of Congress being furnished with a copy at the time of its publication. So strongly did Melville feel upon the subject of flogging that it is stated that, rather than submit to this punishment, he determined, in case it was awarded him as a member of the crew, to seize his captain by the waist and jump overboard with him. Later cruises of the Admiral, in the Mediterranean, lead him to testify, as all naval officers will, to the wretched condition of our consular system, growing out of the mode of appointment, the lack of qualification, and the insecurity of tenure. The exceptional cases, like those of the Foxes of Falmouth, England, and the Spragues, father and son, of Gibraltar, while evidencing by contrast the inefficiency of the service(?), show what prestige for the country a proper system might procure.

The circumstances in which the Admiral was placed during the Mexican war and the civil war were not such as to afford him opportunity for distinction or great activity. In later life he held many positions of honor and usefulness, which he filled most satisfactorily. In his long official career he had the good fortune to meet, in military, naval, social, and political life, many persons, men and women, of distinction and eminence, about whom he chats very agreeably. The opportunity afforded him as commanding officer of the flagship of the European squadron, and afterward as Commander-in-Chief of our naval force in those waters, gave him especial opportunities in this way. His memory shows itself to be exceptionally good, and in width of range almost remarkable. An excellent portrait of the Admiral faces the title-page. The book, we feel sure, will find many readers in and out of the navy.

Outlines of the Earth's History. By Nathaniel S. Shaler. Appletons. 1898.

Prof. Shaler has selected an excellent subject; in fact, there is no part of geological discipline so weak as that which deals with the outlines of the earth's history. Descartes and Leibnitz were practically the first to make studies in what would now be called geology, and they approached the subject from an astronomical point of view. Not so Werner, Hutton, and Smith, to whom the geological investigations of this century owe

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

their impulse. The greater part of the attention of geologists has been devoted to the correlation of strata, areal delineation, and the mineralogical analysis of rocks. Very few of them have given serious attention to the larger questions of the earth's condition and history. It is evident, however, that, as geology progresses, accounting gradually for vulcanism, upheaval and subsidence, the climates of past epochs, and the antiquity of primeval life, this science must at last meet astronomy half way. Ideal theoretical geology would be substantially the astronomy of the planet Terra. Evidently, therefore, every aid which the older and incomparably better developed science can lend to geology, should be eagerly welcomed, and, so far as possible, young geologists should be taught to apply to the earth the methods of investigation which have been found efficient in the study of other stars.

In its theoretical development, geology was greatly hampered from the start by accepting the hypothesis that the earth is an encrusted molten globe. The origin of this idea is almost unknown. Descartes suggested it in order to reconcile the facts with his famous though untenable theory of vortices, and his followers naturally accepted an explanation which seemed unavoidable. When, however, the Newtonian philosophy supplanted the Cartesian, the origin of the belief in a fluid earth escaped attention, and the error survived the catastrophe. It is to experts in mathematical physics, chiefly to Lord Kelvin, that the overthrow of this antiquated fallacy is due, and it is to what might be called terrestrial astronomers that one must look for solutions of the other main questions arising in the history of the earth.

To prepare a useful volume on the outlines of the earth's history would require little learning or originality. There are many valuable unmathematical papers bearing on this subject, such as Laplace's 'Système du Monde' and the popular lectures of Helmholtz, Kelvin, and others. There are also important systematic treatises extant, such as Peschel and Leipoldt's 'Physische Erdkunde.' To make use of them it is only necessary to have a firm grasp of a few of the leading principles of natural philosophy. Thus, in dealing with the nebular hypothesis, the two leading principles to be borne in mind are that in a system on which no external forces act (a "conservative" system) the energy and the moment of momenta remain constant. The moment of momenta measures in a sense the rotation of such a system. Prof. Shaler, nevertheless, makes an attempt to account for the origin of rotation in a nebula initially at rest, and adduces what he supposes to be an analogy which shows that he has not grasped the idea of a conservative system. Again, in an outline of the earth's history one naturally expects to find at least a distinct statement as to whether the earth is fluid or solid, but in the present volume the only reference to this question (which only a few years since was eagerly debated) seems to be the remark that the earth was once molten. Equally unsatisfactory is the treatment of the age of the earth. Helmholtz, Lord Kelvin, Clarence King, and others have made extremely important contributions to this subject. All this work is dismissed in a single footnote, which at least conveys a wrong impression.

Again, we cannot praise Prof. Shaler's treatment of meteorites. "It is possible," he says, "that these fragments of iron and stone which constitute the meteorites, have been thrown into the planetary space by the volcanic eruption of our own and other planets. . . . In some apparent kinship with the meteorites may be classed the comets." This is all that is said of the origin of meteorites or of their bearing on the earth's history. Now H. A. Newton and J. C. Adams traced the principal meteor showers to resolved comets, the theory of volcanic origin was abandoned decades since, and Daubrée's investigations showing the similarity of composition between meteorites and the earth are surely of importance in a work of this character.

A disproportionately large part of the book is devoted to glaciers and the work of underground waters. On these subjects Prof. Shaler is more at home, and it need not be said of this always agreeable writer that throughout he succeeds in interesting the reader.

Sir Walter Ralegh: The British Dominion of the West. By Martin A. S. Hume. Longmans, Green & Co.

Mr. Hume, in undertaking to write on Raleigh for the "Builders of Greater Britain" series, restricts himself to but one, though the most important, phase of his subject's life. By an editor's arrangement the Elizabethan navigator becomes associated with the Cabots, Clive, Wakefield, Rajah Brooke, Admiral Philip and Sir Stamford Raffles. No leader of universal celebrity save Raleigh and Clive appears in the list, and thus it falls fortunately that one of these two should be treated first. Moreover, Mr. Hume has written so well on kindred Elizabethan topics that there is no question of his ability to launch such an enterprise as the present with success.

Stevenson's statement, in his essay on the British Admirals, that "God has made nobler heroes, but he never made a finer gentleman, than Walter Raleigh," requires considerable revision. Raleigh's cruelties in Ireland and his share in piratical stock-jobbing aside, his haughtiness towards those below him and his abject fawning upon those who had power or wealth to bestow, mark him off from gentlemen of the finest breeding. Mr. Hume is much too good an historian to become a special pleader for Raleigh or any one else. If he has a hankering for the "spacious times" of Queen Bess, he would, we are sure, be quite ready to see the point of Mr. Owen Seaman's skilful play upon that phrase in the "Battle of the Bays." His general extenuation of the vices shown by the strong men of his chosen age would be that they are symptoms of youth. Italy had no monopoly of Renaissance paganism, and the proverb "Inglese italianato è un diabolo incarnato" is far from being restricted in its application to the sixteenth-century youth who made the grand tour. Renaissance love of display implies wealth, wealth greed, and to greed may be traced the darkest sins of the bold English seamen. We say so much because the idea that Raleigh was a *preux chevalier* seems ineradicable. The majority of people still think of him as spreading his cloak over the mud, or as penning the splendid close of his 'History of the World.'

With Elizabeth's own mixture of public spirit and meanness in full sight, one has the less difficulty in accepting Mr. Hume's view that Raleigh acted in his colonial schemes from conspicuously patriotic motives. Rejecting this analogy, one must crack a good many hard nuts before he can put much faith in the sincerity of the active courtier's motive. For instance, although one is bound to believe that opposition to Spain was a ruling policy with him, some singular matters about Babington's plot remain to be cleared up. According to Mendoza, the Spanish Ambassador at Paris, Raleigh was anxious about this time to sell the Spaniards his own two ships. Philip opposed their purchase on the following grounds. "That is out of the question," he says, "in the first place to avoid his being looked upon with suspicion in his own country, in consequence of his being well treated here, whilst all his countrymen are persecuted; and, secondly, to guard ourselves against the coming of the ships under this pretext being a feint or trick upon us —which is far from being improbable—but you need only mention the first reason to him." Thus Raleigh at a critical juncture in the hatching of plots on the Queen's life was in treaty with the Spaniards, and, according to Mendoza, "he was [in March, 1586] one of the six men privy to the intention to kill the Queen." Perhaps he was only engaged in the pleasant and profitable business of misleading his country's enemies. Yet over against this theory we know how greedy he was in getting rewards and in selling his influence. "When will you cease to ask for favors?" exclaimed Elizabeth one day. "When your Majesty ceases to be a benefactor," was the adroit reply; an answer better suited to the need of the moment than to the demand of posterity.

Despite the unequal nature of Raleigh's literary work, his uncommon ability is above all cavil. The doubt hinges about his patriotism. When Mr. Hume urges that he spent far more on colonizing than he ever got out of it, the answer may be that he was speculative (witness his support of buccaneering ventures), and that his foresight led him to estimate the degree of just credit which would attach itself to a successful settlement. When, again, Mr. Hume urges that Raleigh was more enlightened than his contemporaries in placing agriculture and commerce before mines, the answer may be that this is additional proof of his cleverness, but adds nothing to the argument for his patriotism. We do not mean to say that Raleigh was actuated solely by a desire to get on in the world. A cool-headed self-seeker he certainly was. A Devonshire man, he very possibly set great store by his country's greatness, but we cannot help feeling that this was an incidental rather than a ruling passion. He is compromised by so many shady actions that we must somewhat discount Mr. Hume's praise of his colonial plans. One can forget his constant begging more easily than his part in Spanish intrigues, on whichever side he may have really been. He could grasp a large idea, but it is hard to believe that he was a pure idealist in colonial politics when he lacked that character in other fields of public service.

In claiming our gratitude for Raleigh, Mr. Hume points to the difference between North and South America, and we recognize gladly his part in persuading Englishmen to settle on these shores. Could we suppose that any danger of minimizing his dash, skill, and infinite resource exists, we should without fail dwell on other and more agreeable sides of his character; upon, let us say, his

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

friendship with Spenser and his place at the head of the squadron in Cadiz harbor. These are matters never to be forgotten, and Raleigh has left an imperishable fame. Mr. Hume treats him in the same vigorous and excellent manner which we have come to associate with his writings on the Elizabethan period. His accuracy is so much a matter of course that we wonder if he is not correct in writing Montoncourt for Moncontour.

Catherine Schuyler. By Mary Gay Humphreys. With portrait. Charles Scribner's Sons.

This biography of the wife of Major-General Schuyler is the sixth and final volume in a series of lives of women of Colonial and Revolutionary times. Mrs. Schuyler was the daughter of John Van Rensselaer, her mother was a Livingston, and she was in many respects a typical matron of her period—a period of which a very fair idea is given in this volume. Of herself we get almost inevitably a somewhat faint picture, the author having a larger supply of material at hand for an impression of the Schuyler household than of the lady at its head. Perhaps the most vivid touch in the book is the passing reference (p. 154) to the painting representing her in the attitude of firing her fields of ripening grain, lest they should fall into the hands of the enemy; but on the whole the chief value of the book lies in the glimpse it affords of family life and social customs among the colonial gentry and magnates of New York in the last half of the 18th century.

The author, being a woman, sees with a woman's eyes and selects her materials with a feminine principle of choice. The result is pleasant reading, with a tinge, perhaps, of that prosy quality by which domestic colonial annals are so apt to be marked. The members of the society described by the author led lives which even contemporary strangers found dull; had it not been for the dangers and excitements of the French and Indian war, and the Revolution, and what followed the Revolution, they would have left behind them little but the uneventful and happy memory of prosperous provincials. But their destiny was, greatly to their own surprise and often dissatisfaction, to take an active part in one of the great movements of history, and to become memorable as the founders of an empire.

To us the most interesting thing in the book is to see how the foundation was laid for their great achievement in the domestic life of America of that day. General Schuyler and his wife and children and their friends became what they were, partly by the strict early training of the time, and partly by constant exposure to dangers and trials which tested and strengthened them. Life in the colonial period was as hard as circumstances could make it, and people in the position of the Schuylers had a sense of responsibility for those dependent on them now difficult to find anywhere. We, whose constant endeavor is to make life as easy as possible, and to shuffle off responsibility of every kind, are apt to forget that our system, though it may be infinitely preferable to what went before, cannot possibly produce types like those of the classical American period. We cannot have Washingtons, and Hamiltons, and Schuylers over again. But we can look back and wonder, and be pretty confident that the wonder will never cease; for no matter how we waste our inheritance, the fame of those who accumulated it for us can never grow dim.

The author gives a good idea of the life of "continual emergency" which was the existence of an important colonial household—especially of the Indian terror always in the background. A curious account, by an eye-witness, of an "exchange of stolen children," is cited on p. 122, the carrying off of children by the Indians having gone on for ten years during the French war. There is also a good description of life in this city in the early days, and a remarkable record of "elopements in high life." The whole country, if not the whole world, was romantic then, though the fact was not discovered till a generation later.

Brunetière's Essays in French Literature. A Selection, translated by D. Nichol Smith. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1898.

The obvious difficulty of rendering in idiomatic English what M. Brunetière expresses in literary, though sometimes crabbed, French, has been easily turned in this translation by tampering as little as possible with the original construction of the sentences. In general, the critic's ideas and conclusions are thus very accurately reproduced, though no good reason seems to be given for clinging to French syntax while occasionally taking disputable liberties with word or phrase. The very first page supplies an illustration of what we mean. Where the original says, "retrancher d'une histoire de la littérature tout ce qui l'a diversifiée," it can hardly be held that "omitting all its eccentricities" perfectly conveys the sense. Again, Corneille "avec des parties d'un Normand" is not quite the same as (p. 6) "with the nature of a Norman"; and if Rousseau is said never to have been "mieux inspiré que par la *défiance*," English readers unsupplied with the text are almost certain to be led astray by the translator's use of the ambiguous word "defiance" (p. 138). In presenting the views of a punctiliously precise master, details of this sort rise into the first rank of importance.

Mr. Smith's volume, which wisely excludes both the more polemical and the theological essays of M. Brunetière, succeeds in giving a sound general impression of the critic's literary position, attitude, and work, chiefly by means of the articles on "The Essential Character of French Literature," "The Philosophy of Molière," "The Classic and Romantic," and "Impressionist Criticism." The first of these sets forth the theory now associated with his name that French literature is marked, not to say dominated, by the spirit of *sociality*; though we confess that to see a verification of this in the cosmopolitan popularity of French novels, which are found "in the booksellers' windows of Vienna and Berlin, of Rome and Naples," had struck us long ere now as a very partial explanation of the facts. French fiction too often finds readers for the same reason that a singer of *chansons gaillardes* from Paris generally makes a successful foreign tour. In the essay on Molière, the austerity of M. Brunetière's ethical ideals finds expression in the exposition and condemnation of the playwright's easy-going laxity as revealed through the true interpretation of the purport of "Tartufe." All these articles, moreover, emphasize the high function which the critic attaches to his profession, for he, less than any one in our day, perhaps, would agree to limit criticism "à connaître de près les belles choses, et à s'en nourrir en exquis amateurs, en humanistes accomplis." But, in our opinion, much the most serviceable, and consequently most permanent, achievement of M. Brunetière's pen is to be sought in his admirably philosophical and scientific treatment of the evolution of the lyrical spirit in modern French poetry, no part of which appears in these papers; and this we recommend to the attention of his present translator.

Letters of Mary Sibylla Holland. London: Edward Arnold.

Mrs. Holland was a sister-in-law of Sir Henry Holland, and late in life she joined the Roman Catholic Church. We are reminded of the well-known epitaph on the Lady O'Looney, who

> "Was bland, passionate, and deeply religious;
> Also she painted in water colors,
> And sent several pictures to the exhibition;
> She was first cousin to Lady Jones,
> And of such is the Kingdom of Heaven."

After reading every letter in this collection, we are lost in wonder at the lack of judgment that made their publication possible. Nothing is more interesting than well-written letters, especially when they deal with public characters and incidents that go to the making of history, or when they contain appreciations of books or pictures or scenery more or less familiar to the reader, or, again, when they show intimate knowledge and love of nature. But here are three hundred pages of letters that deal with little but the daily life of the Holland family. Where the writer touches other topics, the impression produced is of a narrow-minded sentimentality and a lack of what is known as general information. The lady speaks of Sir George Cornewall Lewis as Sir George Cornwall, she places Carlyle much higher than Gladstone, she thanks God that children are not *born* Radicals or agnostics, and she adorns her wearisome pages with little tags of French and Latin as if to claim acquaintance with these tongues. As a specimen of accurate observation we quote from page 180: "At six A. M. I looked out of my window and saw the sun rising well south of west." Her son claims for her that she possessed the rare gift of style, and that she had a peculiar genius for the education of children. These letters show no basis for the first claim, inasmuch as they are sometimes obscure and always commonplace; and our belief in the second is somewhat shaken by the fact that her daughter writes: "The coffin was followed by mamma and I"; and her son (who edits this volume) is guilty of: "older than her." If Mr. Bernard Holland had taken counsel with a literary friend, these and other obvious defects would have been pointed out, the letters would have found their way to some convenient family receptacle, and the world would have been spared another barren book.

Stories from Dante. By Morley Chester. Frederick Warne & Co. 12mo, pp. 227.

As often as "Stories" are constructed from the plaster reproductions of famous works of art, so often is fresh proof given that it is the *art* in the original works that makes them famous. The framework of no great poem is its most essential part; nor are the thoughts, the pictures it contains, what give

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

it its highest value. In art it is the perfection of form and not of spirit that is rewarded with immortality—the *form*, which is only dimly seen in a translation, and which wholly vanishes in a paraphrase.

With these prefatory remarks to introduce the volume before us, little but good need be said of it. The modesty of its preface suggests the thought, confirmed by the delicate tone of the succeeding pages, and their somewhat inappropriate moral reflections, and by the too constant use of the word "wonderful," that it is from the hand of a woman, which makes more easily forgiven the occasional and not important lack of accurate scholarship and the avoidance in general of allegorical interpretation. A true lover of Dante here simply narrates some of the incidents of his poems, elucidating them by historical sketches. The journey through Hell occupies half the volume, and is the least unsatisfactory portion; Purgatory is rather skipped through, and the ascent through the heavenly spheres is made but a short flight, the greater part of which is occupied with accounts of St. Thomas Aquinas, St. Francis, and St. Dominic and St. Benedict. Tact is shown throughout in the choice of what is told and what is omitted. But no possibilities of choice can make of the 'Divine Comedy' a book that many children—for whom this is intended—could read with pleasure or with profit. Rather a volume like this would be a boon to thoughtful persons who cannot read the original, and to whom the uncouthness of the best translation is a barrier to enjoyment and to understanding. These well-written expositions of the facts, among which are scattered frequent unindicated translations of the more beautiful phrases, might be a helpful introduction to a complete translation. A sensitive reader would at once cut out the "illustrations," except the one from a photograph.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aveling, Eleanor Marx. History of the Commune of 1871. 2d ed. International Publishing Co.
Baker, W. S. Washington After the Revolution, 1784—1799. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.50.
Barnes, Prof. C. R. Plant Life: Considered with Special Reference to Form and Function. Henry Holt & Co.
Becke, Louis, and Jeffery, Walter. The Mutineer. A Romance of Pitcairn Island. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Britton, Prof. N. L., and Brown, Addison. An Illustrated Flora of the Northern U. S., Canada, and the British Possessions. Vol. III. Apocynaceæ to Compositæ. Scribners. $3.
Brown, Calvin. The Later English Drama. Student's Edition. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.20.
Brunetière, F. Essays in French Literature. Scribners. $2.
Brunn, Hermann, and Bulle, Heinrich. Heinrich *Brunn's Kleine Schriften*. Ester Band. Römische Denkmäler, etc. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Bryce, James. William Ewart Gladstone. Century Co. $1.
Buckingham, Elinor M. Revival of English Poetry in the Nineteenth Century. Selections from Wordsworth, Coleridge, Shelley, Keats, and Byron. The Morse Co.
Burdett's Hospitals and Charities. 1898. London: Scientific Press; New York: Scribners.
Burt, P. H. Regret of Spring. A Love Episode. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.50.
Carns-Wilson, C. A. Electro-Dynamics. The Direct-Current Motor. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Carpenter, Dr. George. Chavasse's Advice to a Mother on the Management of her Children. 15th ed. George Routledge & Sons. $1.
Chambers, R. W. The Haunts of Men. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.
Clymer, W. B. S. Selections from the Writings of Walter Savage Landor. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Colton, B. P. Physiology, Experimental and Descriptive. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.12.
Conklin, Abram. What Are You Doing Here? Boston: J. H. West. 50c.
Conybeare, F. C. The Key of Truth: A Manual of the Paulician Church of Armenia. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Curry, J. L. M. A Brief Sketch of George Peabody, and a History of the Peabody Education Fund through Thirty Years. Cambridge: John Wilson & Son.
Darr, Mrs. F. J. A. Handbook of Spanish Words and Phrases. W. R. Jenkins. 25c.
Eliot, George. Silas Marner. Boston: Ginn & Co. 60c.
En Pique-Nique, 1898. Publication Annuelle de la Société des Gens de Lettres. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Ferguson, Robert. Dulcissima! Dilectissima! A Passage in the Life of an Antiquary. London: Elliot Stock.
Filon, Augustin. Mérimée. [Les Grands Ecrivains Français.] Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
Gasc, F. E. A. Library Dictionary of the French and English Languages. Henry Holt & Co.
Gibbs, L. R. Coleridge's Ancient Mariner. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Gooch, G. P. The History of English Democratic Ideas in the Seventeenth Century. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.40.
Hall, Gertrude. The Hundred, and Other Stories. Harpers. $1.25.
Hay, Rev. C. E. Luther the Reformer. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. 40c.
Hilyard, Ida L. Love Does It All. Boston: J. H. West. 50c.
Hollopeter, Dr. W. C. Hay-Fever and its Successful Treatment. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co. $1.
Howells, W. D. The Story of a Play. Harpers. $1.50.
Janvier, T. A. In the Sargasso Sea. Harpers. $1.25.
Johnson, E. H. Sursum Corda. A Book of Praise. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. $1.50.
Kent, C. W. Graphic Representation of English and American Literature. Henry Holt & Co.
King, C. R. The Life and Correspondence of Rufus King. Vol. V. 1807-1816. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
L'Amour est mon Péché. Paris: Calmann Lévy.
Lanson, Gustave. Corneille. [Les Grands Ecrivains Français.] Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
Leifsnam, S. D. The Gathered Waifs: Lyrics and Odes, Patriotic, Martial, and Religious. New York: The Author.
Lepelletier, E., and Rachel C. Amours de Don Juan. Paris: Nilsson; New York: Meyer Bros. & Co.
Louys, Pierre. La Femme et le Pantin: Roman Espagnol. Paris: Mercure de France; New York: Meyer Bros. & Co.
Mills, Prof. Wesley. The Nature and Development of Animal Intelligence. Macmillan. $2.
Milton's Paradise Lost, Books I. and II., and Lycidas. Boston: Ginn & Co. 45c.
Moritz, Mrs. C. F., and Kahn, Miss Adèle. The Twentieth Century Cook Book. G. W. Dillingham Co.
Morris, Charles. The Nation's Navy. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Municipal Architecture in Boston. Part II. Boston: Bates & Guild Co.
Murray, Dr. J. A. H. A New English Dictionary. Haversine-Heel (vol. v.). Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Musset, Alfred de. Histoire d'un Merle Blanc. Henry Holt & Co. 30c.
Palmer, Prof. A. H. Schiller's Wilhelm Tell. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Prescott, E. L. Red-Coat Romances. F. Warne & Co. $1.25.
Register of Officers and Members of the Society of Colonial Wars, 1897-1898. New York.
Reid, Christian. The Chase of an Heiress. Putnams. $1.
Ross, Albert. A New Sensation. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.
Strunk, William. Dryden's Essays on the Drama. Henry Holt & Co. 50c.
Terhune, W. L. My Friend the Captain. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.50.
Thomas, Dr. R. H. Penelve; or, Among the Quakers. Philadelphia: J. C. Winston & Co. $1.25.
Tolstoy, Leo. What is Art? T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Trask, Spencer. Bowling Green. Putnams. 75c.
Wagner, C. Auprès du Foyer. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Weed, Clarence M. Seed-Travellers. Boston: Ginn & Co. 30c.
Wellby, Capt. M. S. Through Unknown Tibet. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $6.
Willets, Gilson. His Neighbor's Wife. F. T. Neely.
Woodbury, W. E. The Encyclopædic Dictionary of Photography. New York: Scovill & Adams Co.
Yatawara, T. B. Ummagga Jataka (The Story of the Tunnel). London: Luzac & Co. 10s. 6d.

"A sequel for a wonder as vigorous and powerful as its original."—N. Y. Times.

"A sequel to 'Zenda' which does not let down one bit the high standard of chivalrous love which was the charm of that romance."—Life.

"It is absorbing, and especially it is an interesting sequel."—N. Y. Tribune.

"It strikes a stronger and deeper note" (*than 'Zenda'*).—Springfield Republican.

3D IMPRESSION OF

HOPE'S RUPERT OF HENTZAU.

Illustrated by C. D. GIBSON. 12mo, $1.50.

HENRY HOLT & CO.,

29 WEST 23D ST., NEW YORK.

KINDERGARTEN SUPPLIES

at SCHERMERHORN'S, 3 East 14th Street, N. Y. Send for new Catalogue.

COMPLETE HARPER'S

Monthly and Weekly, bound. Address offers WHIG, Kingston, Ontario. No duty.

JUST PUBLISHED.

Talks with Mr. Gladstone.

By the Hon. L. E. TOLLEMACHE, author of "Benjamin Jowett," "Safe Studies," etc. With a Portrait of Mr. Gladstone. 12mo, cloth, gilt top, $1.25.

LONGMANS, GREEN, & CO.,

91-93 Fifth Ave., New York.

EUROPEAN SUMMER RESORT.

INNSBRUCK, TYROL, AUSTRIA.

1,900 feet above the sea, with dry, bracing climate.

HOTEL TIROL.

Open all the year. Modern conveniences. Best references. Illustrated pamphlets on application.

CARL LANDSEE, Proprietor.

BEAUMARIS HOTEL, MUSKOKA LAKE, ONTARIO, CANADA. 1,000 feet above sea. No hay fever; good fishing, boating, bathing. Send for booklet. EDWARD PROWSE, Proprietor.

The Art of Phonography

A Complete Instructor in the Best Method of Shorthand for All Kinds of Verbatim Work, with the Author's Latest Improvements. By JAMES E. MUNSON, official stenographer New York Supreme Court, and author of the Munson System of Phonography. New, revised edition. 12mo, $2.00.

"Writers of any sort of phonographic shorthand will be greatly interested in this massive new text-book. It is the most complete book of shorthand instruction that has ever been published. The old Munson text-book was exceedingly minute and careful in its rules, but the present volume is twice as large, and goes into details with far greater thoroughness."—*Springfield Republican.*

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS, NEW YORK & LONDON.

Cassell & Company, Ltd.,

LONDON, PARIS, MELBOURNE, have established a branch house at

Nos. 7 and 9 West Eighteenth St., NEW YORK,

and are prepared to supply the American market with their publications through this branch.

Catalogues and all information respecting their line will be gladly furnished on application.

Letters of Credit. We buy and sell bills of exchange to and make Cable Transfers of money on Europe, Australia, and South Africa; also make collections and issue Commercial and Travellers' Credits, available in all parts of the world.

BROWN BROTHERS & CO.

NO. 59 WALL STREET, NEW YORK.

YALE MIXTURE.

The choicest tobacco made, and preëminently a gentleman's smoke.

Marburg Bros., The American Tobacco Co., Successor, Baltimore, Md.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

What Is Art

By COUNT TOLSTOI

AUTHORIZED TRANSLATION BY AYLMER MAUDE

Embodying the author's last alterations and revisions.

One of the most searching and enlightened works of criticism that have appeared for many years.

"It is written with the gentle persuasiveness, the sensitive literary touch, and the great moral and critical force which mark Tolstoi's best work."
—*London Daily Chronicle.*

12mo, cloth, $1 00.

Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.
New York and Boston.

School Agencies.

THE FISK TEACHERS' AGENCIES.
EVERETT O. FISK & CO., Proprietors.
4 Ashburton Place, Boston. 1242 12th St., Washington. 156 Fifth Ave., New York. 414 Cent. Bdg., Minneapolis 730 Cooper Bdg. Denver. 525 Stims'n Bk., Los Angeles 378 Wabash Ave., Chicago. 825 M'ket St., San Francisco

NEW YORK TEACHERS' AGENCY,
Knickerbocker Building, 5th Ave., cor. 14th St., provides schools of all grades with competent teachers; private families with tutors and governesses. Assists teachers in obtaining positions.
Miss H. N. HANNAY.

ALBANY TEACHERS' AGENCY,
24 State St., Albany, N. Y.—Provides schools of all grades with competent teachers. Assists teachers in obtaining positions. HARLAN P. FRENCH, Manager.

THE ALBERT & CLARK TEACHERS' AGENCY, Pullman Building, CHICAGO. Branch, DES MOINES, Ia. 18th year. College positions a specialty.

SCHERMERHORN'S TEACHERS' Agency. Oldest and best known in the U. S. Established 1855. 3 E. 14th St., N. Y.

An Agency is valuable in proportion to its influence. If it merely hears of vacancies and tells **that** is something, but if it is asked to you about them recommend a teacher and recommends you, that is more. Ours **Recommends**
C. W. BARDEEN, Syracuse, N.Y.

THE PRATT TEACHERS' AGENCY
WM. O. PRATT, Manager 70 Fifth Ave., New York

Excellent Summer Books

Cheerful Yesterdays

A most charming autobiographical book. By THOMAS WENTWORTH HIGGINSON. 12mo, $2.00.

"In addition to humor of reminiscence and charm of anecdote there is sound biographical, social, historical, and literary material, none the less valuable for its attractive presentation."—*The Citizen*, Philadelphia.

Unforeseen Tendencies of Democracy

By EDWIN L. GODKIN, Editor of the New York *Nation*. Crown 8vo, $2.00.

"We find this book splendidly patriotic in its clear-eyed acknowledgment of our political sins, to the end that we may shake ourselves free of them, and splendidly American in its desire that America shall show herself worthy of her great opportunity."—*Christian Register*, Boston.

Tales of the Home Folks in Peace and War

By JOEL CHANDLER HARRIS. With capital illustrations. Crown 8vo, $1.50.

"Mr. Harris is quite at his best in these stories."—*The Outlook.*

Birds of Village and Field

A capital Bird Book for Beginners. By FLORENCE A. MERRIAM, author of "Birds Through an Opera Glass," etc. Very fully illustrated. 12mo, $2.00.

Caleb West, Master Diver

By F. HOPKINSON SMITH. Finely illustrated. *18th thousand.* 12mo, $1.50.

"The best work of its author, that into which he has put most of living force and genuine sympathy."—*The Critic*, New York.

Penelope's Progress

By KATE DOUGLAS WIGGIN. *15th thousand.* 16mo, in unique Scottish binding, $1.25.

"Penelope came to cheer, refresh, and captivate. No one ever wore the plaid with such contagious enthusiasm."—HAMILTON W. MABIE.

At the Sign of the Silver Crescent

By HELEN CHOATE PRINCE. 16mo, $1.25.

"It would be hard to exaggerate the literary charm that pervades this delightful story of French provincial life."—*New Orleans Picayune.*

The Pilgrims in Their Three Homes

By WILLIAM ELLIOT GRIFFIS, D.D. With illustrations. 16mo, $1 25. In Riverside Library for Young People, small 16mo, 75 cents.

"These captivating chapters [contain] much fresh information as well as entertainment."—*Christian Intelligencer*, New York.

Sold by all Booksellers. Sent, postpaid, by

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & CO., Boston; 11 East 17th Street, New York.

CLARENDON PRESS.

JUST PUBLISHED.

The Parallel Psalter.

Being the Prayer-Book Version of the Psalms, and a New Version, arranged on opposite pages. With an Introduction and Glossaries by the Rev. S. R. DRIVER, D.D., Litt.D. 12mo, cloth, bevelled boards, $1.50.

For sale by all booksellers. Send for Catalogue.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS,
(American Branch) 91 5th Ave., New York.

ITALIAN.

FRA LE CORDE DI UN CONTRABASSO.

By SALVATORE FARINA. With Preface and English Notes by T. E. Comba. No. 5, Novelle Italiane.

A quaint little story of a pastoral character full of simple philosophy and quiet humor.

"Students of Italian will find this well-edited series most helpful, and this sweet idyl particularly pleasing and easy."—*Philadelphia Times.*

"It is a good book to put in the hands of young students of Italian."—*Victoria Daily Times.*

12mo, paper, 35 cents.

Complete catalogue on application. For sale by all booksellers, or postpaid on receipt of price by the publisher.

WILLIAM R. JENKINS
851 and 853 6th Ave., (cor. 48th St.), New York.

TEACHERS WANTED! We supply Universities, Colleges, Schools, and Families with teachers; teachers with positions; rent and sell school property, and recommend schools to parents and guardians. If you want to teach, write to us. Address

INTERSTATE TEACHERS' AGENCY,
126 Washington Street, CHICAGO, ILL.

DO YOU PREFER SEEING
one of our stylish, comfortable as light summer wraps for seashore, mountains, or home,

AUGUSTE-VICTORIA EMPRESS LADIES' SHOULDER-SHAWLS,

before paying for it? Then write us at once, stating color you wish sent—rich light green, delicate pink, recherché red, pure white or black wool and silk. All entirely hand-woven.
Send **$7.50** or return shawl promptly, after examining it. Make check or money order payable to

THE SUSACUAC WEAVING CO.,
12 Moravian Church St., Bethlehem, Pa.

THE NEW and WONDERFUL
ZEISS
FIELD-GLASSES
IMPORTED AND SOLD BY
THEODORE MUNDORFF, Optician,
1167 Broadway, N. Y. *Send for circular.*

F. W. CHRISTERN
(DYRSEN & PFEIFFER, Successors),
429 5th Ave., between 38th and 39th Sts., New York,
Importers of Foreign Books: Agents for the leading Paris Publishers; Tauchnitz's British Authors, Teubner's Greek and Latin Classics. Catalogues of stock mailed on demand. New books received from Paris and Leipzig as soon as issued.

Study and Practice of French in School
IN THREE PARTS.
By L. C. Boname. Philadelphia, 258 South 16th St.
Natural Method on a New Plan. With thorough drill in Pronunciation and Essentials of Grammar.
From *Education*, Boston: "A well-made series. Teachers will find the three books helpful and interesting."

AUTOGRAPH LETTERS of Famous People bought and sold by WALTER R. BENJAMIN, 1125 Broadway, New York City. Send for price-list.

LIVING AGE INDEX, 1844-1896.—Subscribers increasing, *price considerably reduced.* E. ROTH, 1135 Pine St., Philadelphia.

I PURCHASE GOOD SECOND-HAND Books in any quantity, for cash. Address, with list, A. S. CLARK, 174 Fulton St. (opp. St. Paul's), New York.

Readers and Writers have been Waiting for this Up-to-Date, Full-of-Matter, Moderate-Priced Reference Book.

The Students' Standard Dictionary.

AN ABRIDGMENT OF

Funk & Wagnalls' Standard Dictionary

Large 8vo, 933 pages, cloth, leather back, net, $2 50; Sheep, $4.00; indexed, 50c. additional.

Contains 60,000 Words and Phrases, and 1,225 Pictorial Illustrations.

Sent, postpaid, on receipt of the price, by

THE BAKER & TAYLOR CO.,
5 and 7 East Sixteenth St., New York.

London Weekly Circular of Rare Books issued every Saturday. Sent gratis by
H. W. HAGEMANN, 160 5th Ave., New York.

BOOKS, SECOND-HAND AND NEW. Standard and Rare. Books bought. Catalogues issued. E. W. JOHNSON, 2 E. 42d St., N. Y.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED